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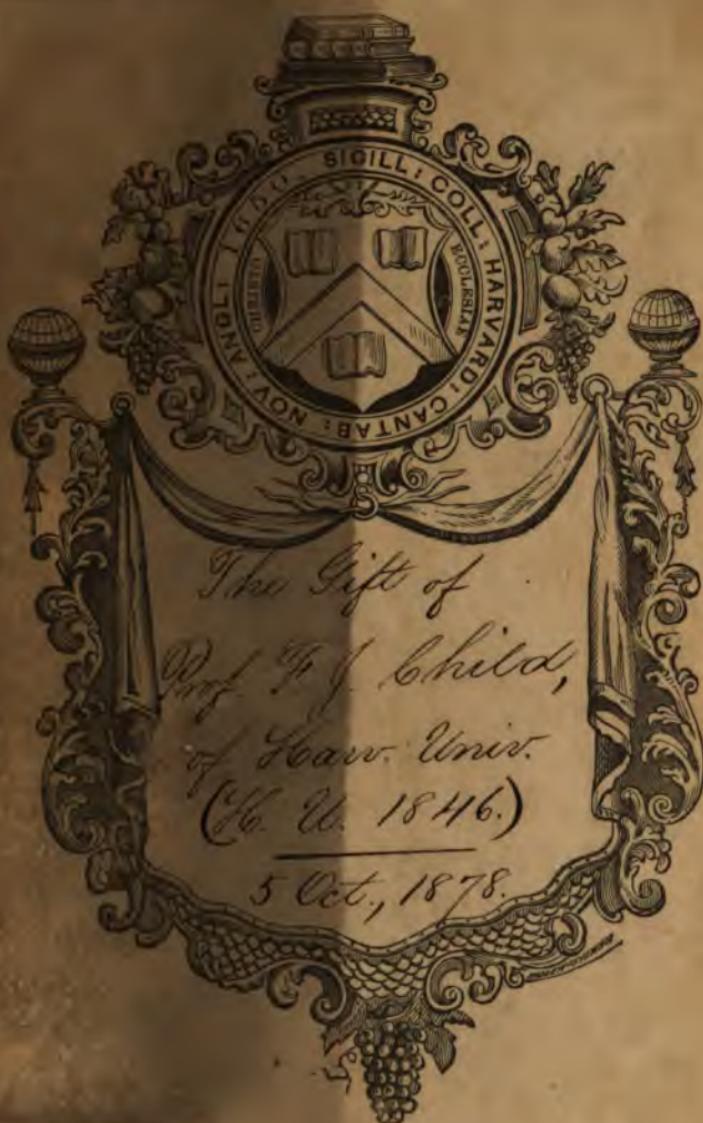
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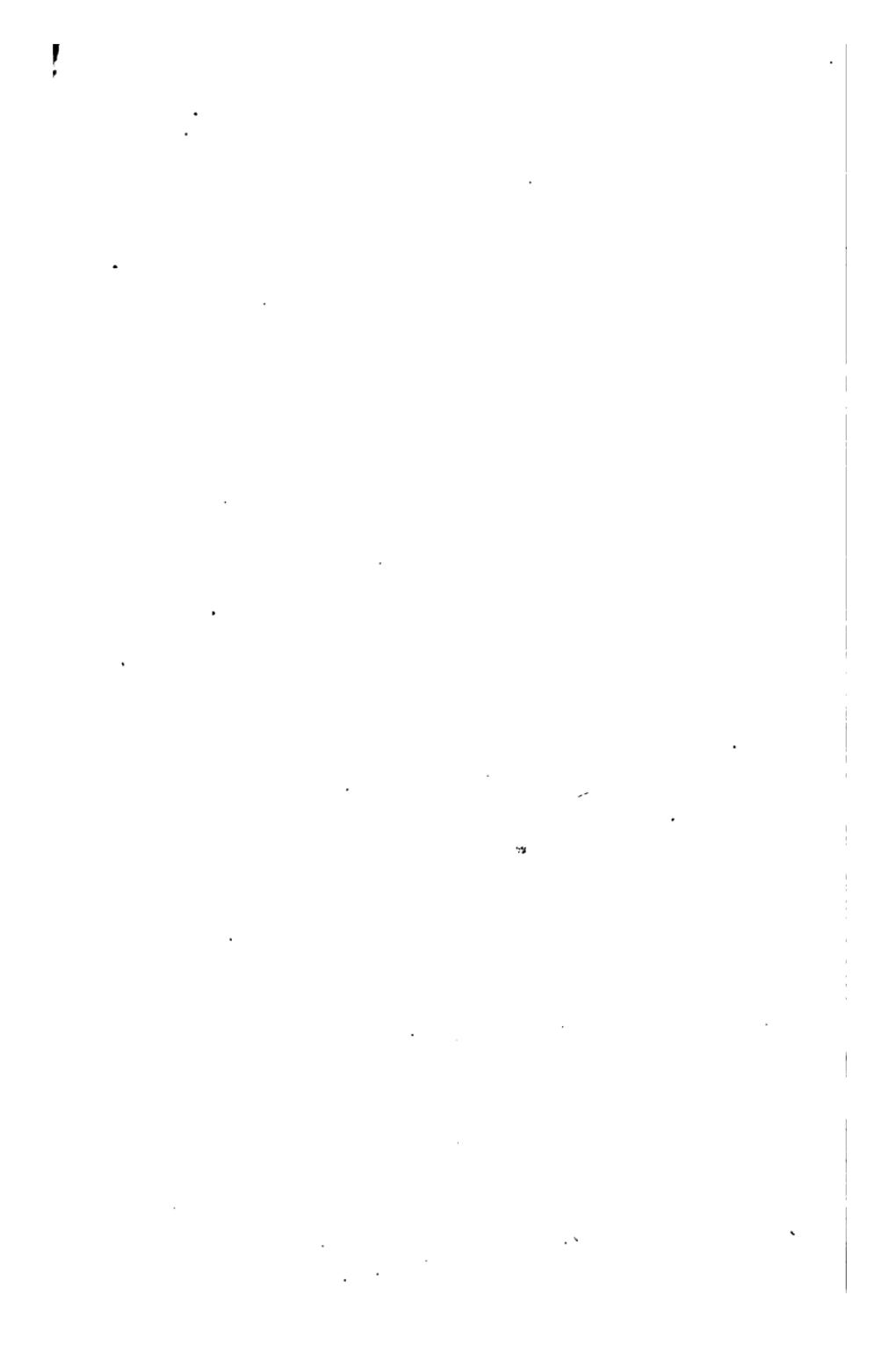
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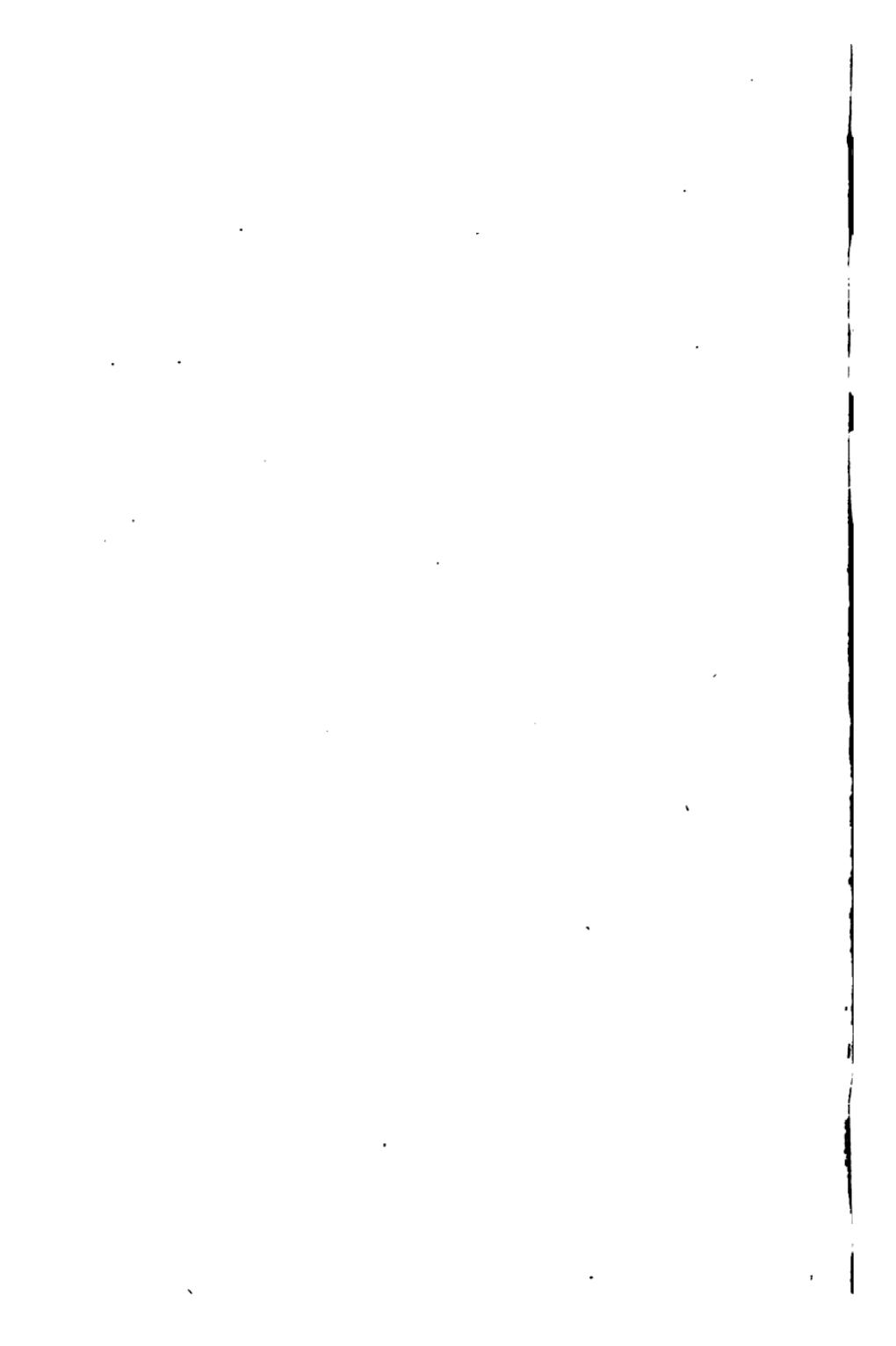
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INTRODUCTION
TO THE
ANALYTICAL
AND
PRACTICAL GRAMMAR
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

BY REV. PETER BULLIONS, D. D.,
AUTHOR OF THE SERIES OF GRAMMARS, ENGLISH, LATIN, AND
GREEK, ON THE SAME PLAN.

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PREFACE.

THIS little work has been prepared to serve as an Introduction to the Author's "Analytical and Practical Grammar of the English Language." The definitions and rules are the same, throughout, as in that work, and are arranged in the same order.

The work is divided into Lessons, each of which is devoted to some one topic. The arrangement in each Lesson, is the same throughout; except that the Questions on each Rule of Syntax are left to be framed by the teacher. That order is the following: The Definitions and Rules belonging to the Lesson, and intended to be committed to memory, are placed first, in large type. Next to these, any subordinate matter regarded as proper for so brief a compend, is subjoined in a smaller type, *to be carefully read and studied* with the Lesson. Then, a series of Questions so framed that correct answers will bring out all the leading facts contained in the preceding text. And lastly, practical Exercises are subjoined, for the purpose of reducing immediately to practice, the knowledge acquired, and fixing it, in the easiest and most effectual manner, in the understanding.

The Exercises in most of the Lessons, are capable of being used in a variety of ways; and ample directions are given, as to the manner in which they are intended to be used.

In Etymology, "ILLUSTRATIONS" are occasionally thrown in, to show in what manner important principles in Grammar may be simplified to the young learner; and, in Syntax, a plain and familiar "EXPLANATION" is subjoined to each Rule, for the same purpose.

Prefixed to the Rules of Syntax, there has been introduced a number of Lessons on the ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES. This useful exercise is presented in such a way as to be easily understood; and to an extent sufficient for beginners; and the whole illustrated by a number of MODELS OF ANALYSIS, which will serve as a guide to the pupil in preparing his lessons in this department.

As it is of great importance to keep the acquisitions of pupils already made, always at hand, and to impress them indelibly on their

minds by repeated reviews of previous Lessons, it will be seen that directions are given at the beginning of each Lesson, for carrying this useful practice into effect.

Another feature in this work is, that with the principles of Grammar, at every step, are combined instructions and exercises in the elementary principles of Composition. Analysis and Composition are carried on together. Directions for parsing each part of speech, with accompanying examples for practice, are given as soon as it has been treated of. And, in like manner, the proper method of combining words for the purpose of expressing our ideas, is pointed out, and Exercises are devised, as soon as the pupil has been made acquainted with the classes of words capable of being combined. One Exercise of this kind, sometimes more, is connected with almost every Rule of Syntax, as at once an exercise on the Rule, and a *praxis* on Composition.

As Orthography belongs more strictly to the Spelling Book, and Prosody is a study for more advanced pupils than those for whom this work is intended, they are introduced here only for the sake of form, and of course little is said respecting them. Though this work is not intended to be a complete treatise on English Grammar, no pains have been spared to render it useful so far as it goes. It contains as much as any work of its size, presented in a neat and perspicuous manner; and moreover, possesses some new and peculiar features, which claim the candid attention and examination of all who feel an interest in simplifying the process of education to the youthful mind, and doing the most good in the shortest time, in the simplest and most pleasing manner, at the earliest period, and at the least expense.

Those who commence the study of Grammar after the age of twelve or fourteen, stand in no need of this work. They should commence at once with the Analytical and Practical Grammar, which contains a complete course of English Grammar, without any other book, and is sufficiently simple for pupils of that age. But young pupils, by going through this, will enter, even at an earlier period, on the study of the larger Grammar with great advantage.

N. B. The numbers in parentheses, as (109) p. 10, refer to the current numbers in the Analytical and Practical Grammar, where the subject is more fully treated.

Troy, N. Y., August, 1862.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Lesson 1.—*Definition and Division.*

[Commit Definitions and Rules accurately to memory.]

ENGLISH GRAMMAR is the art of speaking and writing the English Language with propriety.

It is divided into four parts; namely, *Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.*

PART FIRST.—ORTHOGRAPHY.

Lesson 2.—*Letters and Syllables.*

[Review the preceding Lesson.]

ORTHOGRAPHY treats of letters, and the mode of combining them into syllables and words.

A LETTER is a character representing a particular sound of the human voice.

There are *Twenty-six* letters in the English Alphabet.

Letters are either Vowels or Consonants.

A Vowel is a letter which represents a simple *inarticulate* sound; and, in a word or syllable, may be sounded alone. The vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and *w* and *y* not before another vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in *law, bay*.

A Consonant is a letter which represents an *articulate* sound; and in a word or syllable is never sounded alone, but always in connection with a vowel. The consonants are *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z*, and *w* and *y* before a vowel sounded in the same syllable, as in *war, youth*.

A *Diphthong* is the union of two vowels in one sound; as, *ou* in *out*, *oi* in *oil*. They are of two kinds, *Proper* and *Improper*.

A *Proper Diphthong* is one in which both the vowels are sounded; as, *oy* in *boy*, *ou* in *round*, *oi* in *oil*, *ow* in *cow*.

An *Improper Diphthong* is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded; as *oa* in *boat*.

 A *Triphthong* is the union of three vowels in one sound; as *ea* in *beauty*.

A *Syllable* is a distinct sound uttered by one impulse of the voice, and represented by one or more letters; as, *farm*, *farm-er*, *ea-gle*, *a-er-i-al*.

A word of one syllable is called a *Monosyllable*.

A word of two syllables is called a *Disyllable*.

A word of three syllables is called a *Trisyllable*.

A word of more than three syllables is called a *Polysyllable*.

SPELLING is the art of expressing a word by its proper letters.

QUESTIONS.

What is English Grammar? Into how many parts is it divided? Mention them. What is Orthography? What is a letter? How many letters are there in English? How are they divided? What is a vowel?—a consonant? Name the vowels. When are *w* and *y* vowels? When, consonants? What is a diphthong?—a proper diphthong?—an improper diphthong?—a triphthong?—What is a syllable? What is a word of one syllable termed?—of two?—of three?—of four or more? What is spelling?

PART SECOND.—ETYMOLOGY.

Lesson 3.—Division of Words.

[Review the preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

ETYMOLOGY treats of the different sorts of words, their various modifications, and their derivations.

A WORD is an articulate sound used by common consent as the sign of an idea. Words are divided into different classes, called

the noun, the verb, the adjective, the adverb, the pronoun, the article, the interjection.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

The parts of speech in the English language are nine; viz., *The Noun, Article, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Interjection, and Conjunction*.

Of these, the *Noun, Pronoun, and Verb*, are declined; the rest are indeclinable.

A Substantive is a noun, or any word or phrase used as a noun.

Obs. A *Declinable* word is one which undergoes certain changes of *form* or *termination*, to express the different relations of *gender*, *number*, *case*, *person*, &c., usually termed in Grammar *ACCIDENTS*; as, *man, men*; *love, loves, loved*.

An Indeclinable word is one which undergoes no change of form; as, *good, some, perhaps*.

ILLUSTRATION.—*To speak* is to say what we think. What one says in speaking is called *speech* or *language*. All speech is made up of words, each one of which has its own meaning and use. Any number of words properly arranged so as to express a thought, or make complete sense, is called a *sentence*. Words are divided into different sorts or classes called *parts of speech*, according to their meaning, and use in speaking, i. e. Some words are names of things and are called *nouns*; some qualify or limit the meaning of nouns, and are called *adjectives*; some stand instead of nouns, and are called *pronouns*, &c. [See above and the definitions of the different parts of speech.] To take the words of a sentence separately, and tell to what class of words each belongs and describe it, is called *Parsing*. Hence,

Parsing is the resolving of a sentence into its elements or parts of speech.

QUESTIONS.

What does Etymology treat of? What are words? What are they divided into? What are these classes called? How many parts of speech are there? Name them. Which are declinable? Which are indeclinable? What is a declinable word?—an indeclinable? What is Parsing?

Lesson 4.—*Nouns.*

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

A *noun* is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, *John, London, book*.

Nouns are either *Proper* or *Common*.

A *Proper Noun* is the name applied to an individual only; as, *John, London, the Ohio*.

A *Common Noun* is a name applied to all things of the same sort; as, *man, table, book*.

× A *Substantive* is a noun, or any word or phrase used as a noun (109).

ILLUSTRATION.—Every thing of which a person can speak, hear, or think, has a name; that name in grammar is called a *noun*. Names *common* to all things of the same sort or class, are called *Common nouns*; as, *Man, woman, day, river, city, country*.

Names applied only to individuals of a sort or class, and not common to all, are called *Proper nouns*; as, *John, Lucy, Friday, Thames, London, England*. *Common nouns*, then, distinguish sorts or classes; *Proper nouns* distinguish individuals. Thus, the noun "*Man*" is the name of a class or species, and is applied equally to all, or is *common* to all the individuals in that class. But "*John*" is a name that belongs only to certain individuals of that class, and not to others; it is therefore not *Common* but *Proper*, i. e., *belonging to an individual*.

A word that makes sense after an *article*, or the phrase *speak of*, is a noun; as, *A man; I speak of money*.

OBSERVATIONS.

Under common nouns are usually ranked,

1. *Collective nouns*, or nouns of multitude; as, *army, people*.
2. *Abstract nouns*, or names of qualities; as, *piety, wickedness*.
3. *Verbal nouns*, or names of actions; as, *reading, writing, sleeping*.

The accidents of nouns are *Person, Gender, Number, and Case*.

QUESTIONS.

What is a noun? How many kinds of nouns are there? What is a common noun? What is a proper noun? What part of speech are names of things? What is a collective noun?—an abstract noun?—a verbal noun? Are these nouns proper or common? ~~What Accidents belong to nouns?~~

EXERCISES.

Point out the *nouns* in the following sentences; say why they are nouns. Tell whether they are proper or common, and why. Exercises of this kind may be taken from any book.

The table and chairs in this room belong to Robert. The houses and streets in New-York are larger than those in Albany. The principal cities in the State of New-York, are New-York, Albany, Utica, Rochester, and Buffalo. Wheat, corn, rye, and oats, are extensively cultivated. Apples, pears, cherries, plums, and other fruits abound. George is older than John; they both study arithmetic and grammar.

Lesson 5.—Person.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

PERSON, in grammar, denotes the relation of a noun or pronoun to what is said in discourse.

The persons are three, *First*, *Second*, and *Third*.

A noun is in the *first* person, when it denotes the speaker or writer; as, "I *Paul* have written it."

A noun is in the *second* person, when it denotes the person or thing addressed; as, "Thou, *God*, seest me"—"Hail *Liberty*."

A noun is in the *third* person, when it denotes the person or thing spoken of; as, "Truth is mighty."

12 INTRODUCTION TO ANALYTICAL GRAMMAR.

OBS.—The *first* and the *second* person can belong only to nouns denoting persons, or things regarded as persons; because such only can speak or be spoken to. The *third* person may belong to all nouns; because every object, whether person or thing, may be spoken of.

ILLUSTRATION.—PERSON makes no change either in the meaning or the form of a noun, but simply denotes the manner in which it is used; so that the same noun, without change, may be in the first person, or the second, or the third, according as it denotes the speaker, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. Moreover, as the name of the speaker or of the person spoken to, is seldom expressed (the pronoun *I* or *thou* being used in its stead), a noun is very seldom in the first person, not often in the second, and almost never in either, unless it be a proper noun, or a common noun personified. For this reason, the mention of *person* as a property of the noun, may be omitted in parsing, except when it is of the first or second person, always taking it for granted, that it is of the third, unless otherwise mentioned. The distinction of nouns into proper and common, may also be omitted; because no use is made of the distinction in the construction of a sentence.

QUESTIONS.

† What is person? How many persons are there? What does the first denote?—the second?—the third? To what sort of nouns do the first and the second person belong? Why? To what does the third belong? Why? Does person make any difference in the meaning or the form of the noun? What then does it denote? Is the name of the speaker, or the person spoken to, often mentioned? What words are used instead of them?

Lesson 6.—Gender.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

GENDER is the distinction of nouns with regard to Sex. There are three genders, the *Masculine*, *Feminine*, and *Neuter*.

Nouns denoting *males* are *Masculine*; as, *man*, *boy*,—*king*, *lion*.

Nouns denoting *females* are *Feminine*; as, *woman*, *girl*;—*queen*, *lioness*.

Nouns denoting neither *males* nor *females* are *Neuter*; as, *book*, *house*, *field*.

There are three ways of distinguishing the sexes.

1. By different words; as,

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Bachelor	maid	Hart	roe
Beau	belle	Horse	mare
Boy	girl	Husband	wife
Brother	sister	King	queen
Buck	doe	Master	mistress
Bull	cow	Nephew	niece
Drake	duck	Ram, buck	ewe
Father	mother	Son	daughter
Friar	<u>nun</u>	Stag	hind
Gander	goose	Uncle	aunt

2. By a difference of Termination; as,

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Abbot	abbess	Jew	jewess
Actor	actress	Lion	lioness
Arbiter	arbitress	Patron	patroness
Baron	baroness	Peer	peeress
Bridegroom	bride	Poet	poetess
Duke	duchess	Prince	princess
Emperor	empress	Shepherd	shepherdess
Enchanter	enchantress	Sorcerer	sorceress
Executor	executrix	Tutor	tutoress
Heir	heiress	Viscount	viscountess
Hero	heroine	Widower	widow
Host	hostess		

3. By prefixing a distinguishing word; as,

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
A cock sparrow	A hen sparrow
A he goat	A she goat
A man servant	A maid servant
A male child	A female child
Male descendants	Female descendants

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Some nouns are either *masculine* or *feminine*; as, *parent*, *servant*, *neighbor*. Such are sometimes said to be of the *common gender*.

2. Some nouns naturally neuter, are often converted by a figure of speech into the masculine or the feminine; as, when we say of the sun, "*He* is setting;" of the moon, "*She* is eclipsed;" and of a ship, "*She* sails."

3. Animals of inferior size, or whose sex is not known, are often spoken of as neuter. Thus, of a child we may say, "*It* is a lovely creature."

QUESTIONS.

What is gender? How many genders are there? What does the masculine gender denote?—the feminine?—the neuter? What nouns are said to be masculine? What, feminine? What, neuter? How many ways are there of distinguishing the sexes? What are they? When a noun denotes either a male or a female, of what gender is it sometimes said to be? When the sex of animals is not known, of what gender are their names?

EXERCISES.

1. In the preceding lists, tell the feminine of each masculine noun, and the masculine of each feminine.

2. Tell the part of speech and gender of the following words; thus, *house*, a noun, neuter; *boy*, a noun, masculine, &c.

House, boy, stone, boot, cow, father, mother, sister, brother, daughter, aunt, nephew, niece, uncle, shepherd, paper, pen, ink, parent, neighbor, friend, lion, widow, baron, negro, hero, house, tree, bird, mouse, fly, &c.

Lesson 7.—Number.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

NUMBER is that property of a noun by which it expresses one, or more than one.

Nouns have two numbers, the *Singular* and the *Plural*. The Singular denotes *one*; the Plural, *more than one*.

GENERAL RULE.

The Plural is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular; as *book, books*.

SPECIAL RULES.

1. Nouns in *s, sh, ch* soft, *z, x*, or *o*, form the plural by adding *es*; as *Miss, Misses; brush, brushes; match, matches; topaz, topazes; fox, foxes; hero, heroes*.

Exc. Nouns in *eo, io, and yo*, and in *ch* sounding *k*, have *s* only; as, *cameo, cameos; folio, folios; monarch, monarchs*. Also *canto* has *cantos*; but other nouns in *o* after a consonant now commonly add *es*; as *grotto, grottoes; tyro, tyroes, &c.*

2. Nouns in *y* after a consonant, change *y* into *ies* in the plural; as *Lady, ladies*.

Nouns in *y* after a vowel, follow the general rule; as *Day, days*.

Also, all proper nouns in *y*; as, the *Pompeys*; the *Tullys*.

3. Nouns in *f* or *fe*, change *f* or *fe* into *ves* in the plural; as, *Loaf, loaves; life, lives*.

Exc. But *dwarf, scarf, brief, chief, grief, kerchief, handkerchief, mischief, gulf, turf, surf, fife, strife, proof, hoof, roof, reproof*, follow the general rule. Also nouns in *f* have their plural in *s*; as, *muff, muffs*; except *staff*, which has sometimes *staves*.

OBSERVATIONS.

See An. and Pr. Gr., 155-160.

1. Some nouns form the plural irregularly. They are the following:—

*Singular.**Man**Woman**Child**Plural.**men**women**children**Singular.**Tooth**Goose**Mouse**Plural.**teeth**geese**mice*

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Foot	feet	Louse	lice
Ox	oxen	Penny	pence
<i>Singular.</i>			
Brother (one of the same family)	brothers		
Brother (one of the same society)	brethren		
Sow or swine	sows or swine		
Die (for gaming)	dice		
Die (for coining)	dies		
Aid-de-camp	aids-de-camp		
Court-martial	courts-martial		
Cousin-german	cousins-german		
Father-in-law, &c.	fathers-in-law, &c.		

2. Words from foreign languages sometimes retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in *um* or *on* have *a* in the plural; but *is*, in the singular, is changed into *es*; *ex* and *ix*, into *ices*; *us* into *i* (154); as,

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Arcanum	arcana	Crisis	crises
Automaton	automata	Apex	apices
Axis	axes	Magus	magi

3. Proper names have the plural, only when they refer to a race or family; as the *Stewarts*; or to several persons of the same name; as, the twelve *Cæsars* (161).

4. Names of metals, virtues, vices, and things weighed or measured, are mostly singular; as, *gold*, *meekness*, *temperance*, *milk*, *sugar*, &c.

5. Some nouns are plural only; as, *annals*, *data*, *bellows*, *scissors*, &c.

6. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; as, *deer*, *sheep*, *trout*, *salmon*, &c.

7. Some nouns are plural in form; but in construction, either singular or plural; as, *amends*, *means*, *news*, *riches*, *pains*; and the names of sciences; as, *mathematics*, *ethics*, &c.

8. The article *a* or *an* before a singular noun, is dropped before the plural; as, singular, *a man*; plural *men*.

QUESTIONS.

What is meant by number? How many numbers are there? What does the singular denote?—the plural? How is the plural commonly formed? When is the plural formed by adding *es*? How do nouns in *y*, after a consonant, form the plural?—after a vowel?—nouns in *f* or *fe*? When have proper names a plural? What nouns are mostly singular? What nouns are plural only? What nouns are alike in both numbers? What nouns are plural in form, but either singular or plural in construction?

EXERCISES.

1.- Put the following words in the plural, and give the rule for forming it; thus, "*Chair*, plural *chairs*." RULE, "The plural is commonly formed," &c.; "*Fox*, plural *foxes*." R. "Nouns in *s*, *sh*," &c.

Chair, fox, table, cat, dog, horse, house, hand, finger, arm, boy, girl; dish, church, box, miss, sky, body, key, day, toy, leaf, knife, wife, loaf. An apple (Obs. 8, above), a pear, a cherry, a bush, a church, a bell.

2. Write or spell the singular of the following plurals, and prefix the indefinite article:

Flies, boxes, leaves, brushes, knives, marshes, bays, tables, bushes, trees, dogs, ducks, geese, wives, duties, churches, matches, mice, days, keys, staves, horses, mules, cows, sheep, goats, &c.

3. Tell the plural of the following irregular nouns.

Man, woman, child, *ox*, tooth, foot, goose, penny, mouse; *father-in-law*, *mother-in-law*, *court-martial*, *fisherman*, *washerwoman*, *cousin-german*, &c.

4. Tell the gender and number of the following nouns; give the plural and the rule for forming it; thus, "*House*," a noun, neuter, singular; plural, "*houses*." "The plural is commonly formed," &c.

House, boy, stone, boat, father, king, knife, aunt, emperor, governess, pen, lioness, baron, sister, brother, lord, box, bush, rush, goose, bachelor, doe, bride, fly, loaf, study, coach, toy, mouth, watch, hero, church, tree, way, wife, half, fish, table, mother, apple, cherry, star, sun, moon, planet, earth, sky, mountain, river, sea, &c.

Lesson 8.—*Cases of Nouns.*

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

CASE is the state or condition of a noun with respect to the other words in a sentence.

Nouns have three cases; the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, and *Objective*.

The *Nominative* case commonly expresses that of which something is said, or declared; as, The *sun* shines (164).

The *Possessive* case denotes that to which something belongs; as, The *lady's* fan (165).

The *Objective* case denotes the object of some action or relation; as, James assists *Thomas*; they live in *Albany* (166).

The nominative and objective of nouns are alike.

The possessive singular is formed by adding an apostrophe (') and *s* to the nominative; as, *John's*.

When the plural ends in *s*, the possessive is formed by adding an apostrophe only; as, *Ladies'*.

NOUNS ARE THUS DECLINED;

<i>Nom.</i>	Lady	Ladies	John	—
<i>Poss.</i>	Lady's	Ladies'	John's	—
<i>Obj.</i>	Lady	Ladies	John	—

Proper names generally want the plural.

PARSING.—A noun is parsed etymologically, by telling its *gender*, *number*, and *case*; thus,

Lady's, a noun, *feminine*, in the *possessive singular*.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. When the nominative singular ends in *ss*, or letters of a similar sound, the *s* after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted, in order to avoid too close a succession of hissing sounds; as, "for goodness' sake;" "for conscience' sake." This however is seldom done, unless the word following begins with *s*; thus we do not say "the prince' feather," but the "prince's feather."

2. The objective case, with *of* before it, is generally equivalent to the possessive; thus, "the rage of the tyrant," and "the tyrant's rage" mean the same thing. Sometimes, however, the meaning will be different. [See *An. & Pr. Gr.* 176.]

QUESTIONS.

What is case? How many cases have nouns? What does the nominative case express?—the possessive?—the objective? What two cases are alike? How is the possessive singular formed?—the possessive plural?

EXERCISES.

Gender, Number, and Case.

Parse the following nouns by telling their gender, number, and case; thus, "Father," a noun, masculine, in the nominative singular.*

Father, mother, sister's husband, brother's wife, uncle's house, Tom's books, city, virtue's reward, brother's widow,

* In using the above exercises, it will save much time, which is all important, if the pupil be taught to say every thing belonging to the noun in the fewest words possible; and always in the same order as above. For the same reason, the distinction of nouns into proper and common may be omitted. And as person has nothing to do with the *form* of a noun, but only with its *use*; and as nouns are almost always of the third person, the mention of person may be omitted, if the teacher chooses; but when the noun is in the first or the second person, it should be mentioned. It will also be a profitable exercise for him to assign a reason for every part of his description; thus, *Father*, a noun, because the *name* of an object; *masculine*, because it denotes the *male sex*; *singular*, because it denotes but *one*; plural, *fathers*. Rule, "The plural is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular."

Washington the hero, the statesman, the father of his country: carpenter, farmer, lawyer's fees, teacher's manual, scholar's assistant, ladies' gloves; beans, peas, plums, cherries, houses, lands, rivers, mountains, sun, moon, stars; Heaven, earth, sky, &c.

[Review the whole thoroughly from the beginning, answering accurately all the questions.]

Lesson 9.—*The Article.*

AN ARTICLE is a word put before a noun, to show the manner in which it is used.

There are two articles, *a* or *an*, and *the*.

A or *an* is called the *Indefinite Article*, because it shows that its noun is used *indefinitely*, and not limited to a particular person or thing; as, *a king*, i. e., *any king*.

The is called the *Definite Article*, because it shows that its noun is used *definitely*, and refers to a particular person or thing; as, *the king*, i. e., *some particular King*, known or described.

A noun without an Article, is taken in its widest sense; as, *Man* is mortal; i. e., *All mankind*: Or, in an indefinite sense; as, There are *men* destitute of all shame, i. e., *some men*.

The is sometimes put before a noun denoting the species; as, *the oak*; *the lion* (192).

OBSERVATIONS.

1. *A* is used before a consonant; as, *A book*, *a house*, *a tree*.

Also, before words beginning with *a* long, and *eu*, because they

sound as if beginning with the consonant *y*; thus, *A unit, a use, a eulogy*,—pronounced as if written, *a yunit, a yuse, a yeulogy*.

2. *An* is used before a vowel or silent *h*; as, *An age, an hour*.
3. *A* or *an* is used before the singular number only; *the*, before either the singular or the plural.

PARSING.—The article is parsed by stating whether it is definite or indefinite, and mentioning the noun to which it belongs; thus,

A book. *A* is an article, indefinite, and belongs to "book."

QUESTIONS.

What is an article? How many articles are there? What is *A* or *An* called? Why? What is *The* called? Why? In what sense is a noun without an article taken? What is *A* used before? What is *An* used before? How is the article parsed?

EXERCISES.

Is it proper to say a man, or an man? and why?
 a apple, or an apple? and why?
 a house, or an house? and why?
 a hour, or an hour? and why?

Prefix the indefinite article in the proper form to the following words:

Chair, table, horse, cart, book, house, garden, bird, owl, egg, ear, eye, tree, cow, unit, use, old man, young man, word, book, pot, bench, open wagon, round stone, old hat, penny trumpet, ice house, house, honor, hopeful boy, honest man, &c. See *An. & Pr. Gr.* 187.

Correct the following errors, and give a reason for the change; parse the articles.

An cup, an door, a apple, an pear, an hat, an wig, an eulogy, a honor, an crow, a ostrich, an pen, a ugly beast, an pretty beast, an pretty thing, an huge monster, a upper room, a ice house, an nice house, an humorous poem, a open wagon, an hard nut. &c.

Lesson 10.—*The Adjective.*

AN ADJECTIVE is a word used to qualify a substantive; as, *A good boy*; *a square box*; *ten dollars*. *He is poor*. *To lie is base* (196).

For the word Substantive, see Lesson 4.

Adjectives denoting number, are called Numerical adjectives. Of these, there are two classes; the *Cardinal*, and the *Ordinal*.

The *Cardinal* are *one*, *two*, *three*, &c., and express how many—written in figures, thus, 1, 2, 3, &c.

The *Ordinal*, are *first*, *second*, *third*, &c., and express which one of a number—written in figures, thus, 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, &c.

ILLUSTRATIONS.—A noun, or the name of a thing being mentioned without qualification, brings before the mind the idea of the thing itself. Thus, the word "horse," for example, suggests the idea of the animal so called. But if we wish to describe or point out a particular horse more definitely, and to distinguish it from others of the same species, we *qualify* the term, (196); i. e., we connect with the name or noun a word denoting some property, or quality, or circumstance by which it may be known or distinguished; as, "a *little* horse;" "an *old* horse;" "a *black* horse;" "an *American* horse," &c. Words used for this purpose are called *Adjectives*. Sometimes several of these may be joined with the same noun; as, when we say, "a *little old black* horse;" "a *smooth white round* stone;" "the *good old way*."

In any phrase or sentence, the adjective qualifying a noun may generally be found by prefixing the expression, "What" or "What kind of," to the noun in the form of a question; as, What kind of a horse? What kind of a stone? What kind of a way? The word containing the answer to the question is an adjective.

 It may assist the "young beginner" also to remember, that a word which makes sense with the word thing after it, is an adjective; thus *good*, *bad*, *little*, *round*, may be adjectives, because we can say a *good* thing, a *bad* thing, a *little* thing, &c.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Other parts of speech, when used to qualify or limit a noun, or pronoun, perform the part of an adjective, and should be parsed as such; as, *A gold ring*, *a *he* bear*, *the *then* king*, *the *above* remark*, &c.
2. Adjectives are often used as nouns; as, "God rewards the *good* and punishes the *bad*." "The *virtuous* are the most happy." Adjectives thus used are regarded as plural, because they denote more than one.

QUESTIONS.

What is an adjective? What are adjectives denoting number called? What is a numeral adjective? How many classes of numeral adjectives are there? What are the cardinal numbers? What do they express? What are the ordinal numbers? What do they express? When do nouns or other parts of speech become adjectives? Are adjectives ever used as nouns? Of what number are they considered?

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercise, let the pupil first point out the nouns, and then the adjectives; and tell how he knows them to be so.

A round table, a pretty dog, a little mouse, a low chair, a small book, a sharp knife, white paper, dirty books, ugly faces, a beautiful flower, a rich man, fresh fish, a wild horse, a short man, an old hat, a fierce dog, a good pen, a wise king, an honest man, tame rabbits, a fine day, a sweet apple, a long stick, a little handsome old woman, a thick square book, a large white cat, a new book, a clean white frock, a full cup, an empty mug, a warm room, a wet towel, a cold rainy night, a cloudy sky, windy weather, hard frost, deep snow.

2. In the above Exercises, let the pupil take each noun and prefix to it as many adjectives as he can think of, so as to make sense: as, for example, "table," *high* table, *low* table, *long* table, &c. &c., and in reciting put the emphasis on the adjective.

3. Let him take each adjective, and add to it as many nouns as he can think of, so as to make sense; as, "round," a round *ball*, a round *hole*, a round *house*, a round *cake*, etc., and put the emphasis on the noun.

Lesson 11.—Comparison of Adjectives.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

Adjectives for the most part have three forms, called degrees of comparison; the *Positive*, *Comparative*, and *Superlative*.

The *Positive* expresses the quality simply;

The *Comparative* expresses the quality in a higher degree in one object than in another;

The *Superlative* expresses the quality in the highest degree in one object compared with two or more.

Adjectives of one syllable form the comparative by adding *er* to the positive; and the superlative, by adding *est*; as *sweet*, *sweeter*, *sweetest*.

Adjectives ending in *e* mute, drop *e* before *er* and *est*; as, *large*, *larger*, *largest* (68).

Adjectives of more than one syllable are commonly compared by prefixing *more* and *most*; as, *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful*.

To these rules there are some exceptions.—Adjectives of two syllables are sometimes compared by *er* and *est*; as, “our *tenderest* cares”; a *happier* state; and adjectives of one syllable are sometimes compared by prefixing *more* and *most*; as, *more wise*, *most fit*, &c.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Dissyllables in *le* after a mute, are generally compared by *er* and *est*; as, *able*, *abler*, *ablest*. After a consonant, *y* is changed into *i* before *er* and *est*; as, *dry*, *drier*, *driest*; *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; But *y* with a vowel before it, is not changed; as, *gay*, *gayer*, *gayest*.

2. Some adjectives form the superlative by adding *most* to the end of the word; as, *upper*, *uppermost*. So, *undermost*, *foremost*, *hindmost*, *utmost*.

3. When the positive ends in a simple consonant preceded by a single vowel, the consonant is doubled before *er* and *est*; as, *hot*, *hotter*, *hottest* (60).

4. Some adjectives do not admit of comparison, viz. :

1st. Such as denote *number*; as, *one*, *two*; *third*, *fourth*.

2d. _____ *figure* or *shape*; as, *circular*, *square*.

3d. _____ *posture*, or *position*; as, *perpendicular*, *horizontal*.

4th. Those of an absolute or superlative signification; as, *true*, *perfect*, *universal*, *chief*, *extreme*, &c. (224). 

5. Some adjectives are compared irregularly, as follows:

ADJECTIVES COMPARED IRREGULARLY.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Good	better	best
Bad, evil or ill	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much or many	more	most
Late	later	latest or last
Near	nearer	nearest or next
Far	farther	farthest
Fore	former	foremost or first
Old	older or elder	oldest or eldest

6. *Much* is applied to things *weighed* or *measured*; *many* to those that are *numbered*. *Elder* and *eldest* are applied to *persons* only; *older* and *oldest*, to either *persons* or *things*.

QUESTIONS.

How many degrees of comparison are there? What does the positive denote?—the comparative?—the superlative? How are monosyllables compared?—words of more than one syllable?—disyllables in *le* after a mute?—in *y* after a consonant? What sort of adjectives double the final consonant before *er* and *est*? What adjectives are not compared? What adjectives are compared irregularly?

PARSING.—Adjectives are parsed by stating their class (if numerals), the degree of comparison, and the nouns which they qualify.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the *adjectives* in the following Exercise ; parse them : compare them ; thus, a good father ; "Good," an adjective, positive degree, qualifies "father," compared irregularly, *good, better, best*.

2. Point out the *nouns*, and parse them by telling their gender, number, and case, as directed ; thus, "father," a noun, masculine, in the nominative singular.

A good father, a wiser man, a more beautiful girl, wild horses, young colts, a sweeter apple, the wisest prince, green trees, the honest farmers, the most virtuous people, the richer tradesman, the better scholar, the tallest girl, the finer sheep, large oranges, the merriest fellows, the old soldier, pretty dogs, an ugly calf, the tamest rabbits, the little mouse, the longest stick, a wider table, a most excellent thing, the highest house, the most fruitful garden.

NUMERALS.—Four men, the fourth day, six days, the seventh day, 365 days, ten horses, the first time ;—of four houses, the first is of wood ; the second, of stone ; the third and the fourth, of brick.

3. Turn back, and go over the adjectives in the exercise, Lesson 10, in the same way.

4. In both exercises, change singular nouns into plural, and plural into singular ; give the rule for the plural, and then read the phrase so changed ; thus, *Father*, pl. *fathers*. "The plural is commonly formed by adding *s* to the singular," *good fathers*.

Lesson 12.—Pronouns.

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun ; as, *John* is a good boy ; *he* is diligent in *his* studies.

Pronouns may be divided into four classes ; *Personal, Relative, Interrogative, and Adjective*.

ILLUSTRATION.—PRONOUNS are used simply to avoid the too frequent and consequently disagreeable repetition of the nouns for

which they stand. Thus, instead of saying, *John* is a good boy; *John* is diligent in *John's* studies; we use the pronoun, and say as above, "John is a good boy; *he* is diligent in *his* studies." In the use of pronouns, care should be taken to arrange the sentence in such a way as to leave no doubt to what noun a pronoun refers.

The four classes of pronouns are used in different ways, as will be seen under each.

The Accidents of Personal, Relative, and Interrogative pronouns, like nouns, are *Person*, *Gender*, *Number*, and *Case*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

PERSONAL *Pronouns* are those which distinguish the person by their form. They are either *simple* or *compound*.

1. The simple personal pronouns are *I, thou, he, she, it*; with their plurals, *we, ye* or *you, they*.

I is of the first person, and denotes the *speaker*.

Thou is of the second person, and denotes the *person addressed*.

He, she, it, are of the third person, and denote the person or thing spoken of.

The personal pronouns are thus declined:

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
1. <i>m. or f.</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>mine</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>We</i>	<i>ours</i>	<i>us</i>
2. <i>m. or f.</i>	<i>Thou</i>	<i>thine</i>	<i>thee</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>yours</i>	<i>you</i>
3. <i>masc.</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>They</i>	<i>theirs</i>	<i>them</i>
3. <i>fem.</i>	<i>She</i>	<i>hers</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>They</i>	<i>theirs</i>	<i>them</i>
3. <i>neut.</i>	<i>It</i>	<i>its</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>They</i>	<i>theirs</i>	<i>them</i>

OBSERVATIONS.

1. In proclamations, charters, editorial articles, and the like, *we* is frequently applied to one person.

2. In addressing persons, *you* is commonly put both for the singular and the plural, and has always a plural verb. *Thou* is used only in addresses to the Deity, or any important object in nature; or to 

mark special emphasis; or, in the language of contempt. The plural form, *ye*, is now but seldom used.

3. The pronoun *it*, besides its use as the neuter pronoun of the third person, is also used *indefinitely* with the verb *to be* in the third person singular, for all genders, numbers, and persons; as, *It is I*, *it is we*, *it is you*, *it is they*; *It was she*, &c.

4. The possessive case of the pronoun can not, like the possessive of the noun, be followed by the name of the thing possessed. Thus, we can say, *Mary's book*, but not "*hers book*"; and yet we can say equally well, "*It is Mary's*," or, "*it is hers*." In both these last expressions, the name of the thing possessed is not expressed but implied. [See An. & Pr. Gr. 241.]

5. *Hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*, should never be written *her's, it's, our's, your's, their's*.

2. The compound personal pronouns are *Myselv, thyself, himself, herself, itself*; with their plurals, *ourselves, yourselves, themselves*.

These pronouns are used, without change of form, in the nominative and the objective case. In the nominative they are *emphatic*, and are added to their respective personal pronouns or nouns, or are used instead of them; as, "*I myself did it*;" "*himself shall come*." In the objective, they are *reflexive*, showing that the agent is also the *object* of his own act; as, "*Judas went and hanged himself*." *Ourself* and *yourself* are used as compounds corresponding to *we* and *you* applied to individuals; as, "*We ourself will follow*." "*You must do it yourself*."

PARSING.—The personal pronouns may be parsed briefly thus; *I* is a pronoun of the first person, masculine (or feminine), in the nominative singular.

QUESTIONS.

What is a pronoun? How are pronouns divided? What is a personal pronoun? Why is it called *personal*? What are they? Decline the first—the second—the third. Of what person is *I*?—

thou?—*he, she, it?* What does the first person denote?—the second?—the third? To what class do *myself, thyself, &c.*, belong? In what cases are they used? How are they applied in the nominative?—in the objective? How is *you* applied?—*thou?*—*it?*

EXERCISES.

1. Go over the following list of pronouns and tell their *person*. Go over them again and tell their *gender*: again, and tell their *number*: again, and tell their *case*: and lastly, tell their *gender, number, and case*, together.

I, thou, we, me, us, thine, he, him, she, hers, they, thee, them, its, theirs, you, her, ours, yours, mine, his, I, me, them, us, we, thou, thine, ye, ours, yours. Himself, yourselves, herself, themselves, ourself, yourself, itself.

2. Point out the pronouns in the following Exercise. Parse them by telling their *person, gender, number, and case*; thus, “*me*,” a pronoun, first person, masculine, in the objective, singular.

3. Point out the *nouns* and parse them; the *adjectives* and parse them. Compare them.

4. Read over each sentence, and tell what each of the pronouns stands for; thus, *me* stands for the speaker; *you* for the person spoken to, &c.

Give me the pears you bought of him; I like them better than the apple he bought; it was sour. She told us what we said to her, and they heard her. Put it on, will you? He likes them because they are sweet. Take them to John. I gave them to her. We will do it, if you wish. The men said they would do it. The girl said she did not know them. The boy thought he knew them. You and I went with them to meet her after she had seen him. He and I can do it, though you can not. James bought that book; it is therefore his, and not hers.

“Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth.” “Honor thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long in the land which the Lord thy God giveth thee.” “As ye would that others should do to you, do ye even so to them.”

5. Take any easy reading lesson, and go over it in the same way.

Lesson 13.—Relative Pronouns.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

1. A RELATIVE Pronoun is one that relates to, and connects its clause with, a noun or pronoun before it, called the *antecedent*; as, “The master *who* taught us.”

The antecedent is commonly a noun or pronoun; sometimes a phrase, or clause of a sentence; as,

The *boy* who reads;

He who does well, will be rewarded;

James is sick, which accounts for his absence.

2. The relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. *Who* and *which* are alike in both numbers; and are thus declined:

	Sing. and Plur.	Sing. and Plur.
Nom.	Who	Which
Poss.	Whose	Whose
Obj.	Whom	Which

3. *Who* is applied to persons; as, the boy *who* reads:

And also to inferior animals, and things without life, when they are represented as speaking and acting like rational beings.

4. *Which* is applied to inferior animals, and things without life; as, the dog *which* barks; the book *which* was lost:

And also to collective nouns composed of persons; as, “the court of Spain, *which*;” “the company *which*.” And likewise after the name of a person used merely as a word; as, “The court of Queen Elizabeth, *which* was but another name for prudence and economy.”

Which was formerly applied to persons as well as things, and is so used in the common version of the Scriptures.

5. *That* is often used as a relative, instead of *who* or *which*. It is indeclinable, and applied both to persons and things.

6. *What* is applied to things only, and is never used but when the antecedent is omitted; as, "This is what I wanted" = *that which I wanted*.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE RELATIVE.

1. The office of the relative is twofold.—1st. It is used to connect its clause with the antecedent for the purpose of further describing it. Thus used, it is said to be *additive*; as, "Light is a body *which moves* with great celerity" = *and it moves*, &c. 2d. It is used to connect its clause with the antecedent for the purpose of limiting or restricting it like an adjective or adjunct. Thus used, it is said to be *restrictive*; as, "The *man who is good* is happy" = *The good man is happy* (267).

2. *Whoever*, *whosoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*, are used as compound relatives, and are equivalent to the relative and a general, or indefinite antecedent; as, "*Whosoever committeth sin*, is the servant of sin;" that is, "*any one*," or "*every one who committeth sin*," &c. "*Whatsoever things are of good report*;" i. e. "*All things* (without exception) *which are of good report*." [See An. & Pr. Gr. 752.]

3. *Which* and *what* are sometimes used as adjectives, and have a noun following them; as, "Tell me *what* books you are reading;" "*Which* things are an allegory." In this sense, *which* applies either to persons or things, and in meaning is equivalent to *this* or *these*.

4. *Who*, and also *which* and *what*, without a noun following, are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns; as, I do not know *who* will be our next President.

Interrogative Pronouns.

Who, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions, are called INTERROGATIVE pronouns.

As interrogatives, *who* is applied to persons only; *which* and *what*, either to persons or things. *What* is indeclinable.

Who, *which*, and *what*, used responsively, are *indefinite* pronouns; as, "I know *who* wrote that letter."

PARSING.—The relative is parsed by stating its gender, number, case, and antecedent; (the gender and number being always the same as those of the antecedent) thus:

"The boy *who*."—"Who" is a relative pronoun, masculine, in the nominative singular, and refers to "boy" as its antecedent.

QUESTIONS.

What is a relative pronoun? What is the word to which it relates called? What is the proper use of the relative pronoun? What are the relative pronouns? What is *who* applied to? What is *which* applied to? Why is *that* used as a relative? To what is it applied? What sort of a relative is *what*? What does it include? What sort of words are *whoever*, &c.? When *which* and *what* are followed by nouns, what part of speech are they? What are the interrogative pronouns? Why are they called interrogative? As an interrogative, what is *who* applied to?—*which*?—*what*? In parsing the relative, what is mentioned? How are the gender and number of the relative known?

EXERCISES.

1. Is it proper to say—the man *who*, or the man *which*? why?
the dog *who*, or the dog *which*? why?
the tree *who*, or the tree *which*? why?
the family *who*, or the family *which*? why?

2. In the following sentences, point out the *relative*, and the word to which it relates; also the interrogatives.

3. What is the use of the relative in the first sentence? in the second? in the third? &c. (See Obs. 1, p. 31.)

The boy who studies will improve. I love the man who tells the truth, but all hate him who deals in falsehood. Do you remember the man whom we met? There is the book which you lost. It is the same book that you bought. That is the lady who has been kind to us, and whose hand is ever open to the poor. It is the hand of the diligent that maketh rich. He that giveth to the poor lendeth to the Lord. The temple which Solomon built. Who gave you that

book, which you prize so much? Which house is yours? He who preserves me, to whom I owe my being, whose I am, and whom I serve, is eternal.

Lesson 14.—*Adjective Pronouns.*

[Review the two preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

There are four sorts of ADJECTIVE pronouns; viz., the *Possessive*, *Distributive*, *Demonstrative*, and *Indefinite*.

1. The *Possessive* pronouns are such as denote *possession*. They are *my*, *thy*, *his*, *her*, *our*, *your*, *their*, *its*, *own*.

2. The *Distributive* pronouns represent objects as taken separately. They are *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*. (See An. & Pr. Gram. 297–301).

3. The *Demonstrative* pronouns point out objects definitely. They are *this* and *that*, with their plurals, *these* and *those*.

4. The *Indefinite* pronouns denote persons or things indefinitely. They are *none*, *any*, *all*, *such*, *whole*, *some*, *both*, *one*, *other*. The two last are declined like nouns.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. These pronouns are called *adjective*, because, like adjectives, they either are, or may be, followed by a noun which they qualify or limit.

2. Possessive pronouns have the same meaning as the possessive case of the personal pronouns to which they relate, but are used differently. The possessive pronoun must always have a noun after it,

the possessive case of the personal, never, as it always refers to a noun previously expressed; thus,

Possessive Pronoun.

This is *my* book;
That is *her* pen;
This is *your* hat;
It is *their* house;

Possessive Case.

This book is *mine*.
That pen is *hers*.
This hat is *yours*.
The house is *theirs*.

Note.—*Own* is added to another possessive to make it emphatic; as, “*my own*,” “*their own*,” “*the boy's own book*.”

3. *His* and *her*, followed by a noun, are possessive pronouns; not followed by a noun, they are personal pronouns.

4. *That* is sometimes a demonstrative, sometimes a relative, and sometimes a conjunction; thus,

Dem. *That* book is mine.

Rel. It is the same *that* I bought.

Conj. I read, *that* I may learn.

5. Among indefinites may also be reckoned such words as *no*, *few*, *many*, *several*, and the like;—the compounds *whoever*, *whatever*, *whichever*, &c., and *who*, *which*, and *what*, in responsive sentences (284).

6. *None* is used in both numbers; but it cannot be joined to a noun.

PARSING.—Adjective pronouns are parsed by stating their class, and the word which they qualify; thus,

“*My book*.” *My* is a possessive adjective pronoun; and qualifies “book.”

QUESTIONS.

How many sorts of adjective pronouns are there? Name them. Why called *adjective* pronouns? What is a possessive pronoun? Name the possessive pronouns. What is a distributive pronoun? Name them—A demonstrative pronoun? Name them—An indefinite pronoun? Name them. In what are possessive pronouns and the possessive case of personal pronouns the same? In what do they differ? Give an example of the use of each. How is “*own*” used? When are *his* and *her* possessives?—when personals? In how many different ways is “*that*” used? How is “*none*” used? How are adjective pronouns parsed?

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercise, point out the adjective pronouns, and parse them; the nouns, and parse them:

My book, her shoes, your horse, their father, his brother, every hour, that table, these quills. This is my book; that book is yours. Where is my hat? These apples are good; give some to your brothers. I will give one to each. I have given them all away, every one. Every day try to do good to some person. This book will do as well as that one. Every boy should keep his own books. Do good to all men—injury to none.

Lesson 15.—Exercises on Nouns, Articles, Adjectives, and Pronouns.

1. In the following Exercise, point out the articles, and parse them;—the nouns, and parse them;—the adjectives, and parse them;—the pronouns, and parse them:

I found my hat upon your table; but where is yours? Who put that glove in my cap? Have you seen the book which my father gave to me? That rod of yours is longer than mine, but not so long as John's. Those trees have lost their leaves. Every book on that shelf is mine; I will give you a list of them. Keep this knife for my sake; it is a good one. All men are mortal; time waits for no one; a wise man will improve every moment to some useful purpose. An idle man will come to poverty; but he that is diligent increases his store. They that walk with the wise shall be wise; but a companion of fools shall be destroyed. Give to him that asketh thee, and from him that would borrow of thee, turn not thou away.

[1. Review thoroughly from Lesson 10, answering promptly and accurately all the questions.

2. Review from the beginning, reciting accurately all the definitions and rules, and answering the questions. This may require two or three recitations.]

Lesson 16.—Verbs.

1. A VERB is a word used to express the *act, being, or state* of its subject; as, I *write*; he *is*; time *flies*.
2. Verbs are of two kinds; *Transitive* and *Intransitive*.
3. A TRANSITIVE VERB expresses an act done by one person or thing to another; as, James *strikes* the table; The table *is struck* by James.
4. An INTRANSITIVE VERB expresses the *being, or state* of its subject, or an *act* not done to another; as, I *am*, he *sleeps*, you *run*.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The use of the verb in simple sentences is, to affirm or declare. That of which it affirms or declares is called its *subject*, or nominative.

2. *Transitive* verbs include all those which express an act that *passes over* from the actor to an object acted upon; as, *He loves us*. Here, "*He*" is the actor, "*loves*" expresses the act, and *us*, the object loved, or acted upon. The same thing can be expressed by another form; thus, "*We are loved by him*." Of these two forms of the verb, the first is called the *active* voice, and the second, the *passive* voice.

Intransitive verbs include all verbs not transitive, whether they express action or not; and they have only one form, namely, that of the active voice; as, I *am*; you *walk*; they *run*. A few have the passive form, but the sense is the same in both; as, "*I am come*," and, "*I have come*."

3. Intransitive verbs are sometimes rendered transitive, by adding a noun of the same, or similar signification with themselves, as an object; thus, intransitive, I *run*; transitive, I *run a race*.

4. The same verbs are used sometimes in a transitive, and some-

times in an intransitive sense; thus, transitive, "Charity *thinketh* no evil;" intransitive, "*Think* on me."

5. Transitive and intransitive verbs may be distinguished by the sense, as follows:

1st. A transitive active verb requires an object after it to complete the sense; as, The boy studies *grammar*. An intransitive verb requires no object after it, but the sense is complete without it; as, He *sits*, you *ride*.

2d. Every transitive active verb can be changed into the passive form; thus, "James strikes the table," can be changed into "The table is struck by James." But the intransitive verb can not be so changed; thus, I *smile*, can not be changed into I am *smiled*.

3d. In the use of the transitive verb, there are always *three* things implied; the *actor*, the *act*, and the *object* acted upon. In the use of the intransitive, there are only *two*—the *subject* or thing spoken of, and the *state* or *action* attributed to it.

ILLUSTRATION.—The verb is the most important part of speech. It is a necessary word in every sentence. Without it, we can neither affirm nor deny, nor express any fact or thought. It was therefore called the **VERB**, that is, the *word*, by way of eminence, or of all others the most important. As we wish to express an act or state in a great variety of ways; as present, past, future, actual, contingent, conditional, &c., so there is a great variety of forms assumed by the verb in order to express these things. It is, therefore, very necessary for the pupil to be well acquainted with this part of speech. At this stage, two things must be attended to; both of them very important.

1. The first thing is, to distinguish the verb from every other part of speech. This can easily be done, if the pupil will only remember that every word that tells us what a person or thing does, or what is done to a person or thing, is a verb. Thus, when we say, "John writes;" "the boys study;" "the dog was killed;" we know that "*writes*" is a verb, because it tells us what "John" does; that "*study*" is a verb, because it tells us what "the boys" do; and that "*was killed*" is a verb, because it tells us what was done to "the dog;" and so of others.

2. The second thing is, to know when a verb is *transitive*, and when *intransitive*. Now, when the verb tells what one person or thing does to another, or what is done to *one person or thing* by another, the verb is transitive. Thus, when it is said, "James eats apples;" we know, first, that "*eats*" is a verb, because it tells what James *does*; and secondly, that it is *transitive*, because it tells what James *does* to the *apples*.

But when that which a person or thing does, is not done to another person or thing, the verb is intransitive. Thus, in the sentence, "James runs," we know that "runs" is a verb, because it tells what James *does*; and that it is intransitive, because what James does is not done to any other person or thing.

3. Verbs that denote merely *to be* or *exist*, are always intransitive.

QUESTIONS.

What is a verb? How many classes of verbs are there? What is a transitive verb?—an intransitive? What is the use of the verb in simple sentences? What is the subject of a verb? What does the word *transitive* mean?—intransitive? How many voices has the transitive verb?—the intransitive? How do you know which word in a sentence is a verb? How do you know whether it is transitive or intransitive?

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercises, point out the *verbs*, and tell how you know them to be verbs; thus, "learn" is a verb, because it tells us what "boys" do; "rides" is a verb, because it tells us what "a man" does, &c.

2. Tell which verbs are *transitive*, and which *intransitive*, and how you know them to be so; thus, "learn" is transitive, because it tells what "boys" do to lessons; "rides" is intransitive, because what "a man" does, is not done to any other person or thing.

Boys learn lessons. A man rides. We read a book. My dog barks. The fire burns. The fire burns me. He took their apples. You saw them. We touched it. They strike her. I threw a stone at his window. They killed my rabbit. The horses eat their corn. The cows drink water. I can ride well. A ride improves the health. That man walks fast. A long walk tires me. I love her and you.

In the following sentences, it takes *two*, and sometimes *three words* to make the verb; and these two or three are always parsed together as one word.

I *will water* the garden. James can write a letter. You may ride on my horse. Robert will give a book to you. Yes, he will give you a book. You must light the candle. Your father has sold his horse. I have bought him. John will brush your coat. He *should have brushed* it before. James will have written his letter before night. He may have written it already.

Lesson 17.—Division of Verbs.

[Review thoroughly the preceding Lesson.]

1. In respect of form, verbs are divided into *Regular*, *Irregular*, and *Defective*.

2. A **REGULAR VERB** is one that forms its *Past tense* in the Indicative active, and its *Past participle* by adding *ed* to the Present; as, Present, *act*; Past, *acted*; Past participle, *acted*.

Verbs ending in *e* mute drop *e* before *ed*; as, *love, loved, loved*.

3. An **IRREGULAR VERB** is one that does not form its *Past tense* in the Indicative active, and its *Past participle* by adding *ed* to the Present; as, Present, *write*; Past, *wrote*; Past participle, *written*.

A **DEFECTIVE VERB** is one in which some of the parts are wanting. To this class belong chiefly *Auxiliary* and *Impersonal verbs*.

AUXILIARY VERBS.

The **AUXILIARY**, or *helping verbs*, are those by the help of which verbs are inflected. They are the following, which, as auxiliaries, are used only in the present and the past tense; viz.:

Pres. Do, have, shall, will, may, can, am, must.
Past. Did, had, should, would, might, could, was, —.

The verb *to be* is used as an auxiliary in all its tenses.

Be, do, and have, are also principal verbs.

will, shall with may, can, must, be, do, have

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The auxiliary (or helping) verbs are so called, because, by their help, the verb is enabled to express varieties of time and manner of acting or being, which it could not do without them. The auxiliary always stands before its verb, and the two are regarded in parsing as one word; as, *I will write*, *he has written*, *we may write*, &c.

2. Of the auxiliaries, *shall* implies duty or obligation; *will*, purpose or resolution; *may*, liberty; *can*, ability. The past tense of these verbs is *should*, *would*, *might*, *could*; but still they express time very indefinitely.

3. In affirmative sentences, *will*, in the first person, intimates resolution and promising; as, "I will go;" in the second and third, it commonly foretells; as, "You will be happy."

Shall, in the first person, only foretells; as, "I shall go to-morrow;"—in the second and third, it promises, commands, or threatens; as, "Thou shalt not steal" (335—344).

QUESTIONS.

How are verbs divided in respect of form? What is a regular verb?—an irregular verb?—a defective verb? What are the principal defective verbs? Why are auxiliary verbs so called? What verbs are principal verbs as well as auxiliary? How are the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* distinguished?

EXERCISES.

1. Put the following regular verbs into the Past tense and Past participle:

Fear, love, look, hope, show, learn, move, wash, clean, walk, desire, return, oblige, form, force, punish, support, turn, touch, disturb, place, try, deny, cry, delay.

2. Change the following verbs from the Past tense into the Present:

Marked, protected, composed, favored, turned, hated, mixed, believed, wounded, rushed, preached, hunted, crushed, warned, pleaded, loved, ended.

3. In the following list, tell which verbs are regular, and which are irregular; and why:

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Spoil	spoiled	spoiled
Go	went	gone
Take	took	taken
Write	wrote	written
Hope	hoped	hoped
Run	ran	run
Freeze	froze	frozen
Spy	spied	spied
Obey	obeyed	obeyed

Lesson 18.—Inflection of Verbs.

[Review the two preceding Lessons.]

The Accidents of Verbs are *Voices*, *Moods*, *Tenses*, *Numbers*, and *Persons* ;—also *Participles*.

OF VOICE.

VOICE is a particular form of the verb, which shows the relation of the *subject*, or thing spoken of, to the action expressed by the verb.

Transitive verbs have two voices, called the *Active* and the *Passive*.

1. The ACTIVE VOICE represents the subject of the verb as acting upon some object ; as, James *strikes* the table.

Here the verb “*strikes*,” in the active voice, indicates what its subject, “*James*,” does to the object, *table*.

2. The PASSIVE VOICE represents the subject of the verb as acted upon by some person or thing ; as, The table *is struck* by James. See Lesson 28.

Here the verb “*is struck*,” in the passive voice, indicates what is done to the subject, “*table*,” by James.

3. Intransitive verbs have not a passive voice. A few admit a passive form, but not a passive sense; thus, *I am come*, means the same thing as, *I have come*.

4. When a verb, usually intransitive, is made transitive [Lesson 16, Obs. 3], it is then capable of a passive voice; as, "My race *is run*."

ILLUSTRATION.—Both the active and the passive voice express precisely the same act, but each in a different way. With the active voice, the subject, that is, the person or thing spoken of, does the act, or is active; with the passive voice, the subject is acted upon, or is *passive*. The words *active* and *passive* then strictly belong to the subject, but are properly used to distinguish those *voices* or forms of the verb which show that the subject acts, or is acted upon: that is, the form of the verb which represents its subject as active, is called the *Active voice*; and that which represents its subject as passive, is called the *Passive voice*.

Remembering, then, that the subject or nominative of a verb is the person or thing spoken of, when, in any sentence, we see that that subject *acts*, we know that the verb is in the *active voice*; thus, when we say, "Cæsar conquered Gaul," we see that "Cæsar," the person spoken of, is represented as acting, and therefore "*conquered*" is in the active voice. Again, when we say, "Gaul was conquered by Cæsar," the subject or thing spoken of is Gaul; it is represented as acted upon, and therefore "*was conquered*" is in the passive voice.

QUESTIONS.

What belongs to the inflection of verbs? What is meant by *voice*? How many voices has the transitive verb in English? What are they? How does the active voice represent its subject? How does the passive voice represent it? What voice have intransitive verbs? Have they ever a passive form? Have they ever a passive sense? When intransitive verbs are made transitive, can they be used in the passive voice?

EXERCISES.

In each of the following sentences, the pupil may be questioned, as on the first, in the following manner: Who is the person spoken of in this sentence? Ans.—John. What is said of John? Ans.—He studies. Does the word studies represent John as acting, or as acted upon? Ans.—As acting. In what voice then is "studies?"

Ans.—Active voice. Change the sentence so as to make "grammar" the thing spoken of, and express the same meaning. Ans.—"Grammar is studied by John." Analyze this sentence in the same way as the other.

John studies grammar. Cain slew Abel. Noah built the ark. The temple was built by Solomon. Columbus discovered America. Pride ruins thousands. Most men are governed by custom. I have written a letter.

Lesson 19.—Moods.

[Review the preceding Lesson, and answer the questions.]

Mood is the *mode* or *manner* of expressing the signification of the verb.

Verbs have *five* moods; namely, the *Indicative*, *Potential*, *Subjunctive*, *Imperative*, and *Infinitive*.

1. The *INDICATIVE* mood declares the fact expressed by the verb simply, and without limitation; as, *He loves*; *He is loved*.

2. The *POTENTIAL* mood declares, not the fact expressed by the verb, but only its *possibility*; or the *liberty*, *power*, *will*, or *obligation*, of the subject with respect to it; as,

The wind *may* blow; We *may* walk or ride; I *can* swim; He *would* not stay; You *should* obey your parents.

3. The *SUBJUNCTIVE* mood represents the fact expressed by the verb, not as actual, but as *conditional*, *desirable*, or *contingent*; as,

"If thy presence *go* not with us carry us not up hence."—"O that he *were* wise!"

This mood is subjoined to another verb, and dependent on it.

4. The *IMPERATIVE* mood commands, exhorts, entreats, or permits; as,

Do this; Remember thy Creator; Hear, O my people; Go thy way for this time.

5. The INFINITIVE mood expresses the meaning of the verb in a general manner, without any distinction of person or number, and commonly has *to* before it; as, *To love*.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The subjunctive mood differs from the indicative only in the second and the third person singular of the present tense. The verb "*to be*," differs also in the past tense.

2. The imperative mood, strictly speaking, has only the second person, singular and plural; because, in commanding, exhorting, &c., the language of address is always used; thus, "*Let him love*," is equivalent to, "*Let thou him love*;" where *Let* is the proper imperative, and *love* the infinitive governed by it. [See LESSON 66. 1, 2].

The Infinitive mood may be considered as a verbal noun, having the nominative and the objective case, but not the possessive; and hence it is used either as the subject of another verb, or as the object after it. [See LESSON 66, Sub-rules 1 and 2].

QUESTIONS.

What is mood? How many moods are there? How does the Indicative mood express an action or state?—the Potential?—the Subjunctive?—the Imperative?—the Infinitive? In what parts does the Subjunctive differ from the Indicative? How many persons has the Imperative mood? How may the Infinitive mood be considered? As a verbal noun, what cases has it?

N. B. Exercises on this and the following Lesson will be better understood after the pupil has gone through Lesson 23. They are therefore omitted here.

Lesson 20.—Tenses, or Distinctions of Time.

[Review the two preceding Lessons.]

TENSES are certain forms of the verb, which serve to point out the distinctions of time.

Time is naturally divided into *Present*, *Past*, and *Future*; and an action may be represented, either as incomplete and continuing, or, as completed at the time spoken of. This gives rise to six tenses, only two of which are expressed in English by a distinct form of the verb. The others are formed by the aid of auxiliary verbs; thus,

PRESENT.	{ <i>Action continuing</i> ; as, I love, I do love, I am loving. <i>Action completed</i> ; as, I have loved.
PAST.	{ <i>Action continuing</i> ; as, I loved, I did love, I was loving. <i>Action completed</i> ; as, I had loved.
FUTURE.	{ <i>Action continuing</i> ; as, I shall or will love. <i>Action completed</i> ; as, I shall have loved.

The tenses in English are six; namely, the *Present*, the *Present-perfect*, the *Past*, the *Past-perfect*, the *Future*, and the *Future-perfect*.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE MOOD.

The Indicative mood has all the six tenses; they are used as follows:

1. The PRESENT tense expresses what is going on at the present time; as, *I love you*. *I am loved*.
2. The PRESENT-PERFECT tense represents an action or event as completed at the present time; or in a period of which the present forms a part; as, "John *has cut* his finger." "I *have sold* my horse." "I *have done* nothing this week."
3. The PAST tense expresses what took place in past time; as, "God *said*, let there be light;" "The ship *sailed* when the mail *arrived*."
4. The PAST-PERFECT tense represents an action or event as completed at or before a certain past time; as, "I *had walked* six miles

that day;" "All the judges *had taken* their places before Sir Roger came."

5. The FUTURE tense expresses what will take place in future time; as, "I *will see* you again, and your hearts *shall rejoice*."

6. The FUTURE-PERFECT intimates that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time, yet future; as, "I *shall have got* my lesson before ten o'clock to-morrow."

NOTE. The tenses inflected without an auxiliary, are called SIMPLE tenses; those with an auxiliary, are called COMPOUND tenses.

TENSES OF THE OTHER MOODS.

7. The Potential mood has four tenses; the *Present*, the *Present-perfect*, the *Past*, and the *Past-perfect*.

The tenses in this mood indicate the time, not of the act expressed by the verb, but of the *liberty*, *power*, *will*, or *obligation*, expressed by the auxiliary, or sign of the tense; thus, "I *may write*," does not express the act of *writing* as present, but only the *liberty* to write, expressed by the auxiliary *may*.

Hence the time expressed by the verb in this mood is less definite, and depends not so much on the tense as on other words with which it stands connected. This is the case especially with the *Past* tense. [See An. & Pr. Gr. 428-432.]

8. The Subjunctive mood, in its proper form, has only the present tense. The verb *to be* has the present and the past. The indicative mood is also used as the Subjunctive. Lesson 65.

9. The Imperative mood may always be regarded as present; i. e. the command, &c., is present, though the doing of the act commanded is future.

10. The Infinitive mood has two tenses; the *Present* and the *Perfect*.

11. Participles have three tenses; the *Present*, the *Past*, and the *Perfect*; as, *Loving*, *loved*, *having loved*.

[See Analytical and Practical Grammar, 455].

OBSERVATIONS ON THE TENSES.

1. The Present tense is used to express, 1st—the simple existence of the fact; as, “He *speaks*.” 2d—what is habitual or always true; as, “He *takes* snuff.” 3d—In historical narration, it is used for the past; as, “Cæsar *leaves* Gaul,” for “Cæsar *left* Gaul.”

2. The Present-perfect is used, 1st—to express what *has taken place* at the present time, or in a period of time of which the present forms a part; as, “My father *has arrived*.” 2d—to express an act or state continued through a period of time reaching to, and including the present; as, “He *has* [now] *studied* six months.” 3d—to express an act long since completed, when the reference is not to the act of finishing, but to the thing finished as still existing; as, “Cicero *has written* orations.”

3. The time indicated by the Past tense is regarded as entirely past, however near; as, “I *saw* him a moment ago.” It is also used to express what was customary in past time; as, “She *attended* church regularly.”

4. The Past tenses of the Potential, and the Subjunctive mood, are less definite in regard to time, than the same tenses in the Indicative.

QUESTIONS.

What are tenses? How is time naturally divided? In each of these, how may an action or state be represented? How many tenses are there in the English verb? How many has the Indicative mood? What are they? What does the present tense express?—the Present-perfect?—the Past?—Past-perfect?—the Future?—the Future-perfect?

How many tenses has the Potential mood?—the Subjunctive?—the Imperative?—the Infinitive?—the Participles? In what different ways is the Present tense used?—the Present-perfect?—the Past?

Lesson 21.—*Participles.*

[Review four preceding Lessons, and answer promptly and correctly all the questions.]

A PARTICIPLE is a word which, as a verb, expresses an action or state, and, as an adjective, qualifies a noun or substantive ; as,

There is a boy *amusing* himself; *Devoted* to study, he soon became learned; *Having finished* our task, we may play.

Verbs have three participles ; the Present, the Past, and the Perfect ; as, *Loving, loved, having loved* ;—*Being loved, loved, having been loved.*

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The *Present Participle* active ends always in *ing*, and has an active signification ; as, James is *building* a house. In many verbs, however, it has also a passive signification ; as, The house was *building*, when the wall fell. [See An. & Pr. Gr. 456—457].

2. The *Past Participle* has the same form in both voices. In the active voice, its signification is active ; as, He has *concealed* a dagger under his cloak ;—In the passive voice, its signification is passive ; as, He has a dagger *concealed* under his cloak.

3. The *Perfect Participle* is always compound, and has an active signification in the active voice, and a passive signification in the passive voice.

4. The participle in *-ing* is often used as a verbal or participial noun, having the nominative and the objective case, but not the possessive. In this character, the participle of a transitive verb may still retain the government of the verb, or it may be divested of it by inserting an article before it, and the preposition *of* after it. [See examples, An. & Pr. Gr. 462].

5. Some participles, laying aside the idea of time, and simply qualifying a noun, become participial adjectives, and as such admit of comparison ; as, *An amusing—a more amusing—a most amusing* story. *A most devoted* friend.

QUESTIONS.

What is a participle? How many participles are there? Has the participle in *ing* ever a passive signification? Give an example. How is the perfect participle used? Describe the use of the present participle as a verbal noun. How do participles become adjectives? What are such adjectives usually called? Do they admit of comparison?

[Before proceeding to the next Lesson, review thoroughly from the beginning in two or three recitations.]

Lesson 22.—Number and Person.

[Review the three preceding Lessons, and answer the questions.]

1. Every tense of the verb, except in the Infinitive mood, has two NUMBERS, the *Singular* and the *Plural*; and each of these has three PERSONS, except in the Imperative, which has only the *Second*.

2. The FIRST person asserts of the person speaking; its subject is always *I* in the singular, and *we* in the plural; as, *I* write; *we* write.

3. The SECOND person asserts of the person spoken to; its subject is always *thou* in the singular, and *ye* or *you* in the plural; as, *Thou* writest; *ye* or *you* write.

4. The THIRD person asserts of the person or thing spoken of; its subject is any noun, or the pronoun *he*, *she*, *it*, or *they*, used instead of it; as, *John* reads; *he* walks; *they* run.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The first, second, and third persons plural, are always like the first person singular.

2. The second person singular of the present indicative active, ends in *st* or *est*; as, thou *lovest*; thou *readest*;—of the past, generally in *st*; as, thou *lovedst*. All the other persons in both numbers in this tense are alike.

3. Verbs that end in *s*, *sh*, *ch*, *z*, *x*, or *o*, form the third person singular of the present indicative active, by adding *es*, or, in the grave style, *eth*: as, He *teaches*, or *teacheth*. All others add *s* or *th*, or *eth*; as, he *loves*, or *lovethe*;—*reads*, *readeth*.

4. Verbs in *y* with a consonant before it, change *y* into *i* before the terminations *est*, *es*, *eth*, *ed*; but not before *ing*; as, *try*, *triest*, *tries*, *trieth*, *tried*, *trying*.

5. The Infinitive mood, or a clause of a sentence, sometimes expresses that of which a person speaks, and is therefore the subject of the verb. When it does so it is always regarded as the third person, and a pronoun standing instead of it is in the neuter gender; as, *To play* is pleasant; *it* promotes health. [An. and Pr. Gr., 869. Also, Lesson 66, Sub-rule 1].

QUESTIONS.

How many numbers has each tense? What mood has no distinction of number or person? How many persons are in each number? What mood has only the second person? Of whom does the first person assert? What is its subject in the singular?—in the plural? Of whom does the second person assert? What is its subject in the singular?—in the plural? Of whom or what does the third person assert? What is its subject? What parts in each tense are alike? How is the second person singular formed in the present indicative?—in the past tense? When is the third person singular of the present indicative formed by adding *es*, or *eth*?—When by adding *s*, or *th*, or *eth*? How is it formed when the verb ends in *y* after a consonant?

EXERCISES.

1. Tell the second person singular of the following verbs, and how it is formed.
2. Tell the third person, and how it is formed.
3. Prefix *thou* to each verb, when put in the second person singular; as, “thou tellest;” and *he* to each, when put in the third; as, “he tells.”

Tell, speak, sleep, walk, read, learn, smell, see, hear,

taste, touch, handle, write, pay, eat, drink, warm, teach, go, do, fill, play, stand, sell, buy, study, copy.

4. In the following words, tell which are in the first person, and why;—in the second, and why;—in the third, and why.

5. Prefix to each verb, in the following list, the pronoun of the same person and number as the verb: as, *I love, thou lovest, &c.*

Love, lovest, loves, runs, runnest, sleep, teach, preaches, teachest, writes, write, eats, goes, goest, go, tell, teaches, speaks, read, readest, sews, pay, look, walks, jump, hop, skip, laughs, sing, cry, criest, study, studies.

Lesson 23.—Conjugation of Verbs.

[The pupil should be thoroughly drilled in this Lesson, till he is able to tell every part at once and correctly—and to give promptly any part of the verb that may be required.]

1. The *Conjugation* of a verb is the regular combination and arrangement of its several *moods, tenses, numbers, and persons*.

2. In the active voice, most verbs have two forms; the *Common*; as, *I read*; and the *Progressive*; as, *I am reading*. See Lesson 27, note.

Besides these, in the present and the past indicative active, there is a third form called the *Emphatic*; as, *I do read, I did read*. The other tenses, and also the progressive and the passive form, are rendered emphatic by placing a greater stress of voice on the first auxiliary; as, *I have read—I am reading—it is read*.

3. In parsing, a verb is conjugated by giving its principal parts, as follows:

	<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
ACTIVE.	Love,	Loved,	Loved.
PASSIVE.	Am loved,	Was loved,	Been loved.

The Verb TO BE.

The intransitive irregular verb To be, is inflected through all its moods and tenses. as follows :

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, am.*Past*, was.*Past Participle*, been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I am.
2. Thou art.
3. He is.

Plural.

1. We are.
2. You are.
3. They are.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, *have*.

1. I have been.
2. Thou hast been.
3. He has been.

1. We have been.
2. You have been.
3. They have been.

PAST TENSE.

1. I was.
2. Thou wast.
3. He was.

1. We were.
2. You were.
3. They were.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, *had*.

1. I had been.
2. Thou hadst been.
3. He had been.

1. We had been.
2. You had been.
3. They had been.

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, *shall will*.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall be.
2. Thou shalt be.
3. He shall be.

1. We shall be.
2. You shall be.
3. They shall be.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *shall have, will have*.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall have been.
2. Thou shalt have been.
3. He shall have been.

1. We shall have been.
2. You shall have been.
3. They shall have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, *may*, *can*, *must*.—Inflect with each.*Singular.*

1. I may be.
2. Thou mayst be.
3. He may be.

Plural.

1. We may be.
2. You may be.
3. They may be.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *may have*, *can have*, or *must have*.—Inflect with each.

1. I may have been.
2. Thou mayst have been.
3. He may have been.
1. We may have been.
2. You may have been.
3. They may have been.

PAST TENSE.

Signs, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*.—Inflect with each.

1. I might be.
2. Thou mightst be.
3. He might be.

1. We might be.
2. You might be.
3. They might be.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, *should have*.—Inflect with each.

1. I might have been.
2. Thou mightst have been.
3. He might have been.
1. We might have been.
2. You might have been.
3. They might have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE (*Subjunctive form*).*Singular.*

1. *If* I be.
2. *If* thou be.
3. *If* he be.

Plural.

1. *If* we be.
2. *If* you be.
3. *If* they be.

PAST TENSE (*Subjunctive form*).*

1. *If* I were.
2. *If* thou were or wert.
3. *If* he were.
1. *If* we were.
2. *If* you were.
3. *If* they were.

* The *indicative form* in all the tenses is the same as the indicative with a conjunction prefixed; thus, *If I am*, *If I have been*, *If I was*, *If I had been*, *If I shall or will be*, *If I shall have been*.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

2. Be, or be thou.

Plural.

2. Be, or be ye or you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

To be.

PERFECT TENSE.

To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, Being.

PAST, Been.

PERFECT, Having been.

EXERCISES.

1. Let the pupil tell the *tense, mood, person, and number* of the following words—parts of the verb *to be*; thus, “Am,” present, indicative, first person, singular.

2. Let him parse the same words; thus, “Am” is a verb, intransitive, irregular; *am, was, been*; in the present, indicative, first person, singular.

Am, is, art, wast, I was, they were, we are, hast been, has been, we have been, hadst been, we had been, you have been, she has been, we were, they had been.

I shall be, shalt be, we will be, thou wilt be, they shall be, it will be, thou wilt have been, we have been, they will have been, we shall have been, am, it is.

I can be, mayst be, canst be, she may be, you may be, he must be, they should be, mightst be, he would be, it could be, wouldest be, you could be, he may have been, wast.

We may have been, mayst have been, they may have been, I might have been, you should have been, wouldest have been; (if) thou be, we be, he be, thou wert, we were.

Be thou, be, to be, being, to have been, if I be, be ye, been, having been, if we be, if they be, to be.

3. In the following sentences, parse the words in order; thus, “*Snow*” is a noun, neuter, the nominative singular, because the subject of “*is*.” “*Is*” is a verb, intransitive, irregular; *am, was, been*; in the present, indicative, third person, singular. “*White*” is an adjective, qualifies *snow*; compared, *white, whiter, whitest*.

Snow is white; he was a good man; we have been younger; she has been happy; it had been late; we are old; you will be wise; it will be time; if they be thine; be cautious; be heedful youth; we may be rich.

Lesson 24.—*The Verb to Love.*

The regular verb *to love*, in the common form, is inflected through all its moods and tenses, as follows:

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, love.

Past, loved.

Past participle, loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.*

Singular.

1. I love.
2. Thou lovest.
3. He loves (*or loveth*).

Plural.

1. We love.
2. You love.
3. They love.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, have.

1. I have loved.
2. Thou hast loved.
3. He has *or* hath loved.

1. We have loved.
2. You have loved.
3. They have loved.

PAST TENSE.†

1. I loved.
2. Thou lovedst.
3. He loved.

1. We loved.
2. You loved.
3. They loved.

* PRESENT TENSE. (*Emphatic form.*)

1. I do love.
2. Thou dost love.
3. He does *or* doth love.

1. We do love.
2. You do love.
3. They do love.

† PAST TENSE. (*Emphatic form.*)

1. I did love.
2. Thou didst love.
3. He did love.

1. We did love.
2. You did love.
3. They did love.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, *had*.

1. I had loved.	1. We had loved.
2. Thou hadst loved.	2. You had loved.
3. He had loved.	3. They had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, *shall*, *will*.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall love.	1. We shall love.
2. Thou shalt love.	2. You shall love.
3. He shall love.	3. They shall love.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *shall have*, *will have*.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall have loved.	1. We shall have loved.
2. Thou shalt have loved.	2. You shall have loved.
3. He shall have loved.	3. They shall have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, *may*, *can*, *must*.—Inflect with each.

1. I may love.	1. We may love.
2. Thou mayst love.	2. You may love.
3. He may love.	3. They may love.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *may have*, *can have*, * *must have*.—Inflect with each.

1. I may have loved.	1. We may have loved.
2. Thou mayst have loved.	2. You may have loved.
3. He may have loved.	3. They may have loved.

PAST TENSE.

Signs, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*.—Inflect with each.

1. I might love.	1. We might love.
2. Thou mightst love.	2. You might love.
3. He might love.	3. They might love.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, *should have*.—Inflect with each.

1. I might have loved.	1. We might have loved.
2. Thou mightst have loved.	2. You might have loved.
3. He might have loved.	3. They might have loved.

* *Can have* is not used in affirmative sentences.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE (*Subjunctive form*).*

1. <i>If</i> I love.	1. <i>If</i> we love.
2. <i>If</i> thou love.	2. <i>If</i> you love.
3. <i>If</i> he love.	3. <i>If</i> they love.

PRESENT TENSE (*Indicative form*).†

1. <i>If</i> I love.	1. <i>If</i> we love.
2. <i>If</i> thou lovest.	2. <i>If</i> you love.
3. <i>If</i> he loves (<i>or</i> loveth).	3. <i>If</i> they love.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

1. <i>If</i> I have loved.	1. <i>If</i> we have loved.
2. <i>If</i> thou hast loved.	2. <i>If</i> you have loved.
3. <i>If</i> he has <i>or</i> hath loved.	3. <i>If</i> they have loved.

PAST TENSE.

1. <i>If</i> I loved.	1. <i>If</i> we loved.
2. <i>If</i> thou lovedst.	2. <i>If</i> you loved.
3. <i>If</i> he loved.	3. <i>If</i> they loved.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

1. <i>If</i> I had loved.	1. <i>If</i> we had loved.
2. <i>If</i> thou hadst loved.	2. <i>If</i> you had loved.
3. <i>If</i> he had loved.	3. <i>If</i> they had loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

1. <i>If</i> I shall <i>or</i> will love.	1. <i>If</i> we shall <i>or</i> will love.
2. <i>If</i> thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt love.	2. <i>If</i> you shall <i>or</i> will love.
3. <i>If</i> he shall <i>or</i> will love.	3. <i>If</i> they shall <i>or</i> will love.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

1. <i>If</i> I shall <i>or</i> will have loved.	1. <i>If</i> we shall <i>or</i> will have loved.
2. <i>If</i> thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have loved.	2. <i>If</i> you shall <i>or</i> will have loved.
3. <i>If</i> he shall <i>or</i> will have loved.	3. <i>If</i> they shall <i>or</i> will have loved.

* The Present subjunctive is here given in two forms: 1st. in the *subjunctive* or *elliptical form*, used when both contingency and futurity are implied; and 2d. the *indicative form*, used when contingency only, and not futurity is implied. In parsing, the latter should be called the "indicative used subjunctively," being the indicative mood in form, and rendered subjunctive only by the conjunction prefixed. This is true also of the other tenses in this mood.

The emphatic forms of the present are, *If I do love, if thou do love, if he do love*, etc.; of the past, *If I did love, if thou didst love, etc.*, as in the indicative.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

Common form. 2. Love, or love thou. 2. Love, or love ye or you.
Emphatic form. 2. Do thou love. 2. Do ye or you love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT, To love.

PERFECT, to have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT, Loving. PAST, Loved. PERFECT, Having loved.

PARSING.—A verb is parsed by stating its *kind* (i. e., whether transitive or intransitive); its *form*, (whether regular or irregular); *conjugating it*, and telling in what *tense*, *mood*, *voice*, *number* and *person*, it is found; also its *subject*; thus,

"He loves." *Loves* is a verb, transitive, regular; *love*, *loved*, *loved*; found in the present, indicative, active; third person, singular; and affirms of its subject, *he*.

N. B. It is important in parsing to state every thing belonging to a word in as few words as possible, and always in the *same order*.

QUESTIONS.

What is the conjugation of a verb? How is a verb conjugated? Conjugate the verb *love* in the active voice. Say the indicative present—past—future—the present-perfect—the past-perfect—future-perfect. Say the first person singular, in each tense—the second—the third—the first person plural—the second—the third. Say the emphatic form, in the present—in the past. What are the signs (or auxiliaries) of the present-perfect?—the past-perfect?—the future?—the future-perfect?—the subjunctive present?—present-perfect?—past?—past-perfect? &c. What is the sign of the infinitive?

EXERCISE I.

1. Go over the following Exercise, and tell the tense, mood, and voice of each verb; thus, "He *loves*," present, indicative, active.
2. Go over it again, and tell the person and number; thus, *loves*, third person, singular.

3. Go over it again, and join these together; and so tell the tense, mood, voice, number, and person; and always in this order; as, *loves*, present, indicative, active, third person, singular.

In the imperative, omit the tense, and say thus, *love thou*, imperative, active, second person, singular.

In the infinitive, omit the person and number, and say thus, *To love*; present, infinitive, active.

In the participle, name only the tense and voice; thus, *loving*; present participle, active.

N. B. The *pronoun* is no part of the verb, but helps to show its person and number; and the auxiliaries (or *signs*) are not taken separately, but always with the verb; so that the two words, and sometimes three, as in the past-perfect potential, are parsed together as *one word*; thus, *have loved*, the present-perfect, indicative, active, &c.

N. B. This Exercise should be repeated till the pupil can do it correctly, rapidly, and easily, and without missing, either in the number or order of the things to be stated.

He loves, they love, I have loved, you will love, thou teachest, they will learn, he has written, I had given, James will go, John may come, he might read, they would have studied, children play, boys studied, they did study. Write thou, come ye. To love, to sing, to have played, reading, sleeping, running, loved, learned, having loved, having gone, birds fly, horses galloped, the fire burns, the sun did shine, the moon has changed.

N. B. Pupils may be required to make exercises of this kind for themselves.

EXERCISE II.

Before beginning this Exercise, let the pupil go back and review thoroughly LESSON 16, and the exercises on it; then

1. Tell which words are verbs, and why; and whether transitive or intransitive, and why.
2. Tell their tense, mood, voice, person, and number, as in the preceding Exercise.
2. Go over it again, and parse each verb by putting all these together; thus, *loves*, is a verb, transitive, in the present, indicative, active, third person, singular.

He loves us, I will love him. Good boys will study their lessons. Children love play. The dog killed my rabbit. James has written a letter. Cows eat hay. A fire warms the room. Bring some wood. I have studied grammar.

Girls may write letters. Your sister can sing. He would like to hear a song. Give that book to me. I will give this book to you. Lend me your pen. Children should obey their parents; they should love God. Remember the Sabbath day, to keep it. All men must die. Time waits for no man. Do good to all men. John will mend my pen; I will thank him. You would oblige me by assisting me to learn this lesson. Tell Henry to shut the door.

“And he opened his mouth, and taught them, saying, Blessed are the poor in spirit: for theirs is the kingdom of heaven. Blessed are they that mourn: for they shall be comforted. Blessed are the meek: for they shall inherit the earth. Blessed are they which do hunger and thirst after righteousness: for they shall be filled.”

EXERCISE III.

1. *The Nominative Case.*

N. B. A verb in the active voice tells what some person or thing does. That person or thing then is its subject, and is in the nominative case; thus, in the first sentence of the preceding Exercise, the word “*loves*,” tells what “*he*” does; *he*, therefore, is its subject, and is in the nominative case.

Point out the verb in each sentence of the preceding Exercise; tell what word is its subject, and why? What case is the subject in?

2. *The Objective Case.*

A transitive verb in the active voice tells what its subject does to some person or thing. That person or thing is the *object* of the verb, and is in the objective case. Thus, in the above sentence, “He loves us,” *loves* is a transitive verb, and tells what its subject, *he*, does to *us*. *Us*, then, is its object, and is in the *objective* case.

The nominative, or subject, is usually before the verb; the objective is usually after it.

Point out the *transitive verbs* in the preceding Exercise. Tell what word is the object in each sentence, and what case it is in.

EXERCISE IV.

Parsing.

Go over the preceding Exercise, and parse each word in order;—the *nouns* as directed, LESSON 8, p. 18;—the *articles* as directed, LESSON 9, p. 21;—the *adjectives* as directed, LESSON 11, p. 25;—the *pronouns* as directed, LESSON 12, p. 28; and the *verbs* as directed in this Lesson, p. 58.

Lesson 25.—Negative Form of the Verb.

The verb is made to *deny* by placing the word *not* after the simple form; as, "Thou lovest *not*;" and between the auxiliary and the verb in the compound form; as, "I do *not* love." When two auxiliaries are used, *not* is placed between them; as, I *would not have* loved.

In the infinitive and participles, the negative is put first, as, Not to love; not loving.

The simple form is seldom used with the negative. In the present and the past tense, the compound or emphatic form is more common. The following synopsis will show the manner of using the negative.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.	1. I do not love.	2. Thou dost not love, &c.
PRES. PERR.	1. I have not loved.	2. Thou hast not loved, &c.
PAST.	1. I did not love.	2. Thou didst not love, &c.
PAST PERR.	1. I had not loved.	2. Thou hadst not loved, &c.
FUTURE.	1. I will not love.	2. Thou wilt not love, &c.
FUT. PERR.	1. I shall not have loved.	2. Thou shalt not have loved, &c.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT.	1. I can not love.	2. Thou canst not love, &c.
PRES. PERR.	1. I may not have loved.	2. Thou mayst not have loved, &c.
PAST.	1. I might not love.	2. Thou mightst not love, &c.
PAST PERR.	1. I might not have loved.	2. Thou mightst not have loved, &c.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.	1. <i>If</i> I do not love.	2. <i>If</i> thou do not love, &c.
	The other tenses are the same as in the indicative.	

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Sing.	2. Love not, or do not thou	Plur.	2. Love not, or do not ye love.
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INFINITIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.	Not to love.	PERF.	Not to have loved.
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PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT.	Not loving.	PAST.	Not loved.
	PERF. Not having loved.		

Lesson 26.—*Interrogative Form of the Verb.*

The verb is made to ask a question by placing the nominative or subject after the simple form; as, Lovest thou? and between the auxiliaries and the verb in the compound forms; as, Do I love? When there are two auxiliaries the nominative is placed between them; as, Shall I have loved?

The subjunctive, imperative, infinitive, and participles, can not have the interrogative form.

The simple form of the verb is seldom used interrogatively. The following synopsis will show how the verb is put into the interrogative form.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.	1. Do I love?	2. Dost thou love? &c.
PRES. PERF.	1. Have I loved?	2. Hast thou loved? &c.
PAST.	1. Did I love?	2. Didst thou love? &c.
PAST PERF.	1. Had I loved?	2. Hadst thou loved? &c.
FUTURE.	1. Shall I love?	2. Wilt thou love? &c.
FUT. PERF.	1. Shall I have loved?	2. Wilt thou have loved? &c.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT.	1. May I love?	2. Canst thou love? &c.
PRES. PERF.	1. May I have loved?	2. Canst thou have loved? &c.
PAST.	1. Might I love?	2. Couldst thou love? &c.
PAST PERF.	1. Might I have loved?	2. Couldst thou have loved? &c.

OBS. Interrogative sentences are made negative by placing the negative either before or after the nominative; as, Do I not love? or, Do not I love?

QUESTIONS.

How is a verb made *negative*? Where is the negative placed in the simple form? Where, in the compound form? Where, when there are two auxiliaries? Where, in the infinitive and participles? Say the indicative present in the negative form throughout;—the other tenses.

How is the verb made interrogative? Where is the nominative placed in the simple form? Where, in the compound form? Where, when there are two auxiliaries? What parts of the verb can not be used interrogatively? Say the indicative present throughout, interrogatively. Say the other tenses.

EXERCISES.

1. Put the verb, in the following sentences, into the negative form.
2. Put the verb, in the following sentences, into the interrogative form.
3. Distinguish the different parts of speech, and parse them, as in the preceding Exercise, IV.

I love you. You loved me. James studies grammar. Your father has come. He will go soon. The ship foundered at sea. John would eat apples. Apples will grow on this tree. The horse will run a race. The fox had catched the goose. Rabbits eat clover. Study overcomes most difficulties. Labor promotes health. Wealth makes the man. Poverty scatters friends. The ships sail. The sun has set. The moon rose. The stars will shine.

N. B. Let the pupils make similar exercises for themselves, and parse them.

Lesson 27.—*Progressive Form of the Active Voice.*

The PROGRESSIVE form of the verb is inflected by prefixing the verb *to be*, through all its moods and tenses, to the present participle; thus,

PRESENT.	1. I am writing.	2. Thou art writing, &c.
PRES. PERF.	1. I have been writing.	2. Thou hast been writing, &c.
PAST.	1. I was writing.	2. Thou wast writing, &c.
PAST PERF.	1. I had been writing.	2. Thou hadst been writing, &c.
FUTURE.	1. I shall be writing.	2. Thou shalt be writing, &c.
FUT. PERF.	1. I shall <i>or</i> will have been writing.	2. Thou shalt <i>or</i> wilt have been writing, &c.

In this manner go through the other moods and tenses.

NOTE. Verbs which, in the common form imply *continuance*, do not usually admit the progressive form; thus, "I am loving" (if proper), would mean nothing more than, "I love."

EXERCISES.

- 1 Change the following verbs from the simple into the progressive form :

He writes, they read, thou teachest, we have learned, he had written, they go, you will build, I ran, John has done it, we taught, he stands, he stood, they will stand, they may read, we can sew, you should study, we might have read.

2. Change the following, from the progressive into the simple form :

We are writing, they were singing, they have been riding, we might be walking, I may have been sleeping, they are coming, thou art teaching, they have been eating, he has been moving, we have been defending, they had been running.

3. Parse the above verbs in the progressive form ; thus, " *We are writing* ;" " *are writing*," is a verb, transitive, irregular; *write, wrote, written*; [See Lesson 29] in the present, indicative, active, first person, plural, progressive form.

Lesson 28.—*Passive Voice.*

The PASSIVE voice is inflected by adding the past participle to the auxiliary verb *to be*, through all its moods and tenses; thus;

Pres., Am loved. *Past*, Was loved. *Past Part.*, Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

1. I am loved.
2. Thou art loved.
3. He is loved.

Plural.

1. We are loved.
2. You are loved.
3. They are loved.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, *have*.

1. I have been loved.
2. Thou hast been loved.
3. He has been loved.

1. We have been loved.
2. You have been loved.
3. They have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

1. I was loved.
2. Thou wast loved.
3. He was loved.

1. We were loved.
2. You were loved.
3. They were loved.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Sign, *had*.

1. I had been loved.	1. We had been loved.
2. Thou hadst been loved.	2. You had been loved.
3. He had been loved.	3. They had been loved.

FUTURE TENSE.

Signs, *shall*, *will*.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall be loved.	1. We shall be loved.
2. Thou shalt be loved.	2. You shall be loved.
3. He shall be loved.	3. They shall be loved.

FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *shall have*, *will have*.—Inflect with each.

1. I shall have been loved.	1. We shall have been loved.
2. Thou shalt have been loved.	2. You shall have been loved.
3. He shall have been loved.	3. They shall have been loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

Signs, *may*, *can*, *must*.—Inflect with each.*Singular.*

1. I may be loved.	1. We may be loved.
2. Thou mayst be loved.	2. You may be loved.
3. He may be loved.	3. They may be loved.

Plural.

1. We may be loved.
2. You may be loved.
3. They may be loved.

PRESENT-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *may have*, *can have*, *must have*.—Inflect with each.

1. I may have been loved.	1. We may have been loved.
2. Thou mayst have been loved.	2. You may have been loved.
3. He may have been loved.	3. They may have been loved.

PAST TENSE.

Signs, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*.—Inflect with each.

1. I might be loved.	1. We might be loved.
2. Thou mightst be loved.	2. You might be loved.
3. He might be loved.	3. They might be loved.

PAST-PERFECT TENSE.

Signs, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, *should have*.—Inflect with each.

1. I might have been loved.	1. We might have been loved.
2. Thou mightst have been loved.	2. You might have been loved.
3. He might have been loved.	3. They might have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE (*Subjunctive form*).*

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. <i>If I</i> be loved.	1. <i>If we</i> be loved.
2. <i>If thou</i> be loved.	2. <i>If you</i> be loved.
3. <i>If he</i> be loved.	3. <i>If they</i> be loved.

PAST TENSE (*Subjunctive form*).*

1. <i>If I</i> were loved.	1. <i>If we</i> were loved.
2. <i>If thou</i> were or wert loved.	2. <i>If you</i> were loved.
3. <i>If he</i> were loved.	3. <i>If they</i> were loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
2. Be thou loved.	2. Be ye or you loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be loved. *Perf.* To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present</i> , Being loved.	<i>Past</i> , Loved.
<i>Perfect</i> , Having been loved.	

EXERCISE I.

On the Passive Voice.

1. Tell the *tense*, *mood*, *person*, and *number* of the following words in the passive voice;—change them into the active form.

2. Go over the exercise again, and parse each word in order; thus, “*They*,” is a pronoun of the third person, masculine (or feminine), in the nominative plural, the subject of *are loved*: “*are loved*,” is a verb, transitive, in the present, indicative, passive, third person, plural, because its subject, “*they*,” is third person, plural.

They are loved; we were loved; thou art loved; it is loved; she was loved; he has been loved; you have been loved; I have been loved; thou hadst been loved; we shall be loved; thou wilt be loved; they will be loved; I shall have been loved; you will have been loved.

* The indicative form in all the tenses is the same as the indicative with a conjunction prefixed; thus, *If I am loved*, *If I have been loved*, *If I was loved*, *If I had been loved*, *If I shall or will be loved*, *If I shall have been loved*.

He can be loved; thou mayst be loved; she must be loved; they might be loved; ye would be loved; they should be loved; I could be loved; thou mayst have been loved; it may have been loved; you might have been loved; if I be loved; if thou wert loved; though we be loved; though they be loved. Be thou loved; be ye loved; you be loved. To be loved; loved; having been loved; to have been loved; being loved.

3. Change the preceding, from the passive to the active progressive form.

EXERCISE II.

On the Noun, Article, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, promiscuously.

1. In the following Exercise, tell which words are articles—which are nouns—and why;—which are adjectives—and why;—which are pronouns—and why;—which are verbs—and why.

2. Point out the verbs; tell whether transitive or intransitive—and why;—active or passive—and why.

3. Go over again, and point out the nouns, and tell whether proper or common—and why;—singular or plural—and why;—their gender—and why.

He has learned his lesson. I loved him because he was good. A good man will forgive those who may have injured him. Love your enemies; do good to them that hate you. Remember your Creator in the days of your youth. We are commanded to love our neighbor as ourselves. That book was printed in New York. The winter has been cold, but the ground was covered with snow. Columbus discovered America. America was discovered by Columbus. I have been studying grammar. It is never too late to learn that which is good and useful. Peter Parley has written some pleasing books. Good boys love reading. Study to understand what you read.

4. Go over the preceding Exercise, and parse each word in order, as directed in preceding Exercises.

N. B.—It will now be important to review thoroughly and repeatedly from Lesson 23, particularly Lessons 23, 26, and 28, with the Exercises under them. This will require several recitations. And while that is going on, the pupil may also go forward with Lesson 29, conjugating from memory the irregular verbs, in such portions daily as the teacher may direct.

Lesson 29.—Irregular Verbs.

1. An IRREGULAR Verb is one that does not form both its *past tense* and *past participle* by adding *ed* to the present; as, *Am, was, been*.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Am	was	been
Arise	arose	arisen
Awake	awoke ^{n*}	awaked
Bake	baked	baken ⁿ
Bear, <i>to bring forth</i>	bare or bore	born
Bear, <i>to carry</i>	bore or bare	borne
Beat	beat	beaten or beat
Begin	began	begun
Bend	bent ⁿ	bent ⁿ
Bereave	bereft	bereft ⁿ
Beseech	besought	besought
Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
Bind ^{an}	bound	bound
Bite	bit	bitten, bit
Bleed	bled	bled
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke, brake	broken, broke
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Build ^{re-}	built ⁿ	built ⁿ
Burn	burnt ⁿ	burnt ⁿ
Burst	burst	burst
Buy	bought	bought
Cast	cast	cast
Catch	caught ⁿ	caught ⁿ
Chide	chid	chidden, chid
Choose	chose	chosen
Cleave, <i>to adhere</i>	clave ⁿ	cleaved
Cleave, <i>to split</i>	clove or cleft	cloven or cleft
Cling	clung	clung
Clothe	clothed, clad	clad ⁿ
Come ^{be-}	came	come
Cost	cost	cost
Crow	crew ⁿ	crowed
Creep	crept	crept

* Those verbs which are conjugated regularly as well as irregularly, are marked with an *n*.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Cut	cut	cut
Dare, <i>to venture</i>	durst	dared
Dare, <i>to challenge, is</i> ^z	dared	dared
Deal	dealt ^z	dealt ^z
Dig	dug ^z	dug ^z
Do <i>mis- un-</i>	did	done
Draw	drew	drawn
Dream	dreamt ^z	dreamt ^z
Drink	drank	drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Dwell	dwelt ^z	dwelt ^z
Eat	ate, eat	eaten
Fall <i>be-</i>	fell	fallen
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Flee	fled	fled
Fling	flung	flung
Fly	flew	flown
Forbear	forbore	forborne
Forget	forgot	forgotten, forgot
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Get <i>be- for-</i>	gat or got	gotten, or got
Gild	gilt ^z	gilt ^z
Gird <i>be- en-</i>	girt ^z	girt ^z
Give <i>for- mis-</i>	gave	given
Go	went	gone
Grave <i>en- z</i>	graved	graven ^z
Grind	ground	ground
Grow	grew	grown
Hang	hung	hung*
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Heave	hove ^z	hoven ^z
Hew	hewed	hewn ^z
Hide	hid	hidden, hid
Hit	hit	hit
Hold <i>be- with-</i>	held	held or holden
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Keep	kept	kept
Kneel	kneit ^z	kneit ^z
Knit	knit ^z	knit or knitted

* *Hang*, to take away life by hanging, is regular; as, The robber was *hanged*, but the gown was *hung* up.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Know	knew	known
Lade	laded	laden
Lay	laid	laid
Lead <i>mis-</i>	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Let	let	let
Lie, <i>to lie down</i>	lay	lain or lien
Light	lighted or lit	lighted or lit
Load	loaded	laden ^R
Lose	lost	lost
Make	made	made
Mean	meant	meant
Meet	met	met
Mow	mowed	mown ^R
Pay <i>re-</i>	paid	paid
Pen, <i>to inclose</i>	pent ^R	pent ^R
Put	put	put
Quit	quit ^R	quit ^R
Read	read	read
Rend	rent	rent
Rid	rid	rid
Ride	rode	<u>rode</u> , <u>ridden</u> [*]
Ring	rang or rung	rung
Rise <i>a-</i>	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven ^R
Rot	rotted	rotten ^R
Run	ran	run
Saw	sawed	sawn ^R
Say	said	said
See	saw	seen
Seek	sought	sought
Seethe	sod ^R	sodden ^R
Sell	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Set <i>be-</i>	set	set
Shake	shook	shaken
Shape <i>mis-</i>	shaped	shapen ^R
Shave	shaved	shaven ^R
Shear	shore ^R	shorn
Shed	shed	shed
Shine	shone ^R	shone ^R
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot

* *Ridden* is nearly obsolete.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Show*	showed	shown π
Shrink	shrank or shrunk	shrunk
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Sing	sang or sung	sung
Sink	sank or sunk	sunk
Sit	sat	sat or sitten \dagger
Slay	slew	slain
Sleep	slept	slept
Slide	slid	slidden, slid
Sling	slang, slung	slung
Slink	slunk	slunk
Slit	slit	slit or slitted
Smite	smote	smitten
Sow	sowed	sown π
Speak <i>5e-</i>	spoke or spake	spoken
Speed	sped	sped
Spell	spelt π	spelt π
Spend <i>mis-</i>	spent	spent
Spill	spilt π	spilt π
Spin	span, spun	spun
Spit <i>be-</i>	spat, spit	spit
Split	split	split
Spread <i>be-</i>	spread	spread
Spring	sprang or sprung	sprung
Stand <i>with- &c.</i>	stood	stood
Steal	stole	stolen
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
Stride <i>be-</i>	strode or strid	stridden
Strike	struck	struck, stricken
String	strung	strung
Strive	strove	striven
Strew \ddagger <i>be-</i>	strewed	strewed or
Strow <i>be-</i>	strowed	strown, strowed
Swear	swore, sware	sworn
Sweat	sweat π	sweat π
Sweep	swept	swept
Swell	swelled	swollen π
Swim	swam or swum	swum
Swing	swung	swung
Take <i>be- &c.</i>	took	taken

* *Show, shewed, shewen*,—pronounced *show, &c.*

\dagger *Sitten and spitten* are nearly obsolete.

\ddagger *Strew and shew* are now giving way to *strow and show*, as they are pronounced.

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Past Participle.</i>
Teach <i>mis-re-</i>	taught	taught
Tear <i>un-</i>	tore or tare	torn
Tell	told	told
Think <i>be-</i>	thought	thought
Thrive	throve <i>R</i>	thriven <i>R</i>
Throw	threw	thrown
Thrust	thrust	thrust
Tread	trod	trodden, trod
Wax	waxed	waxen <i>R</i>
Wear	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Weep	wept	wept
Wet	wet <i>R</i>	wet <i>R</i>
Whet	whet <i>R</i>	whet <i>R</i>
Win	won	won
Wind	wound <i>R</i>	wound
Work	wrought <i>R</i>	wrought, worked
Wring	wrong <i>R</i>	wrong
Write	wrote	written

Ques. The preceding list contains nearly all the simple irregular verbs in the English language.

QUESTIONS.

What is an irregular verb? Are any verbs both regular and irregular? Give an example. Since there is no list of regular verbs, how may we know what verbs are regular? Is "*am*" regular or irregular—and why?

EXERCISE I.

1. Name the past tense and past participle of the following verbs; Thus, *Take, took, taken*. [This is called conjugating the verb.]

2. Make a short sentence on the slate or blackboard, with each verb, in the present tense—in the perfect-tense—in the past tense—in any tense; thus, We *take* breakfast early. John *took* my hat. I *have taken* his coat.

Take, drive, creep, begin, abide, buy, bring, arise, catch, bereave, am, burst, draw, drink, fly, flee, fall, get, give, go, feel, forsake, grow, have, hear, hide, keep, know, lose, pay, ride, ring, shake, run, seek, sell, see, sit, slay, slide, smite, speak, stand, tell, win, write.

3. In the sentences made as directed No. 2, tell which verbs are transitive, and which are intransitive—and why. Point out the subject in each sentence, that is, the person or thing spoken of, and

call that the nominative. Tell which nouns or pronouns are in the nominative—and why;—in the objective—and why.

4. In each sentence, put the verb in the emphatic form—in the progressive form—in the negative form—in the interrogative form—in the negative interrogative form.

EXERCISE II.

1. In the following Exercise, point out which verbs are regular, and which are irregular—and why.

2. Make short sentences with each verb, as in the preceding Exercise, and do with each as there directed, in Nos. 2, 3, 4.

Love, hope, trust, weep, throw, keep, brush, hunt, count, reckon, ask, sleep, eat, drink, spin, save, go, teach, wipe, am, draw, bruise, water, know, wash, spoil.

3. Take the sentences containing transitive verbs, and express the same idea by the passive form; thus, suppose the sentence to be, "James loves praise;" passive form, "Praise is loved by James."

4. Parse the sentences so changed.

Lesson 30.—*Defective and Impersonal Verbs.*

DEFECTIVE verbs are those in which some of the parts are wanting. They are irregular, and chiefly auxiliary. These are,—

Present.	Past.	Past Part.	Present.	Past.	Past Part.
Can	could	—	Shall	should	—
May	might	—	Will	would	—
Must	—	—	W ^s	wist	—
Ought	—	—	W th or }	—	—
Quoth	quoth	—	W ^t or }	wet	—

Imperative,—Beware.

4

2. IMPERSONAL verbs are those which assert the existence of some action or state, but refer it to no particular subject. They are preceded by the pronoun *it*, and are always in the third person singular; as, *it seems*; *it becomes*, &c.

To this head may be referred such expressions as, *It hails, it snows, it rains, it thunders, it behooveth, it irketh*; and perhaps also, *methinke, methought, meseems, meneemed*, in which, instead of *it*, the first personal pronoun in the objective case, *me*, is prefixed to the third person singular of the verb.

QUESTIONS.

What is a defective verb? Are they regular or irregular? What are they? What tenses do the most of them have? What tense has *must*?—*ought*? Is it proper to say “I had ought to read?” Why? What is an impersonal verb? By what are they preceded? In what person and number are they? What sort of words are *methinks, meseems, &c.*?

Lesson 31.—Adverbs.

[Review the preceding Lesson.]

An ADVERB is a word joined to a *verb*, an *adjective*, or another *adverb*, to modify it, or to denote some circumstance respecting it; as, Ann speaks *distinctly*: she is *remarkably* diligent, and reads *very* *correctly*.

Adverbs have been divided into various classes, according to their signification. The chief of these are such as denote,

1. **QUALITY** or **MANNER** simply; as, *well, ill, bravely, prudently, softly*, with innumerable others, formed from adjectives by adding *ly*, or changing *le* into *ly*; thus, *tame, tamely; sensible, sensibly, &c.*
2. **PLACE**; as, *here, there, where; hither, thither; hence, &c.*
3. **TIME**; as, *now, then, when; soon, often, seldom; ever, &c.*
4. **DIRECTION**; as, *upward, downward, backward, forward, &c.*
5. **NEGATION**; as, *nay, no, not, nowise, never.*
6. **AFFIRMATION**; as, *verily, truly, undoubtedly, yea, yes.*
7. **UNCERTAINTY**; as, *perhaps, peradventure, perchance.*
8. **INTERROGATION**; as, *how, why, when, wherefore, &c.*
9. **COMPARISON**; as, *more, most; less, least; as, so, thus, &c.*
10. **QUANTITY**; as, *much, little, enough, sufficiently.*
11. **ORDER**; as, *first, secondly, thirdly, &c.*
12. **CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS**; as, *when, where, how, while, &c.*

OBSERVATIONS.

1. The chief use of adverbs, is to shorten discourse, by expressing

in one word what would otherwise require two or more; as, *here*, for "in this place;" *nobly*, for "in a noble manner," &c.

2. Some adverbs admit of comparison like adjectives; as, *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*; *nobly*, *more nobly*, *most nobly*. A few are compared irregularly; as, *well*, *better*, *best*; *badly*, *or ill*, *worse*, *worst*.

3. Some words become adverbs by prefixing *a*, which signifies *at*, or *on*; as, *abed*, *ashore*, *afloat*, *aground*, *apart*.

4. In comparisons, the antecedents *as* and *so* are usually reckoned adverbs; the corresponding *as* and *so* are adverbs also; thus. It is *as high as* Heaven.

Circumstances of time, place, manner, &c., are often expressed by two or more words constituting an *adverbial phrase*; as, *in short*, *in fine*, *in general*, *at most*, *at least*, *at length*, *not at all*, *by no means*, *in vain*, *in order*, *long ago*, *bye and bye*, *to and fro*, &c., which, taken together, may be parsed as adverbs, or by supplying the ellipsis; thus, *in a short space*: *in a general way*, &c.

6. A Conjunctive Adverb stands for two adjuncts, one of which contains a relative pronoun, and the other its antecedent; as, "I will see you *when* you come, i. e., *at the time at which*." Tell me *how it is done*, i. e. *the manner in which*.

PARSING.—An adverb is parsed by stating its class, and the word which it modifies; thus,

"Ann speaks distinctly." *Distinctly* is an adverb of manner, and modifies "speaks."

QUESTIONS.

What is an adverb? In the sentence, "Ann speaks distinctly," which is the adverb? Why? Into how many classes are adverbs commonly divided? Name the first three—the second three—the next three—the last three. How are adjectives changed into adverbs? What is the chief use of adverbs? Are any adverbs compared like adjectives? Give an example. Are any compared irregularly? Give an example. What is an adverbial phrase? Give examples. How are such phrases to be parsed? How are adverbs parsed? For what do conjunctive adverbs stand?

EXERCISE I.

1. In the following list of adverbs, point out the class to which each belongs.

2. Compare those that admit of comparison.
3. Make a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more of the adverbs in the following list; and parse the sentences so made.

Here, there, softly, boldly, wisely, seldom, upward, once, twice, hitherto, yesterday, how, more, little, secondly, enough, perhaps, yes, no, truly, not, already, hence, whence, better, sufficiently, wisely, somewhere.

EXERCISE II.

1. In the following sentences, tell what words are articles—what words are nouns, and why—adjectives, and why—pronouns, and why—verbs, and why—whether transitive or intransitive; and why—regular or irregular, and why.

2. Which words are adverbs?—and why? What words do they modify? Parse.

Peter wept bitterly. He is here now. She went away yesterday. They came to-day. They will perhaps buy some to-morrow. Ye shall know hereafter. She sang sweetly. Cats soon learn to catch mice. Mary rose up hastily. They that have enough may soundly sleep. Cain wickedly slew his brother. I saw him long ago. He is a very good man. Sooner or later all must die. You read too little. They talk too much.

Lesson 32.—*Prepositions.*

A PREPOSITION is a word which shows the relation between a noun or a pronoun following it, and some other word in the sentence; as,

“*Before* honor is humility.” “They speak *concerning* virtue.”

In these sentences, the preposition, “*before*,” points out the relation between “honor” and “humility;” and “*concerning*” points out the relation between “virtue” and “speak.”

The principal words of this class are contained in the following—

LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

About	Below	From	Through
Above	Beneath	In	Throughout
Across	Beside }	Into	Till
After	Besides }	Notwithstanding	To
Against	Between	Of	Touching
Along	Betwixt	Off	Toward }
Amid }	Beyond	On	Towards }
Amidst }	But	Out of	Under
Among }	By	Over	Underneath
Amongst }	Concerning	Past	Until
Around	Down	Pending	Unto
At	During	Regarding	Up
Athwart	Ere	Respecting	Upon
Bating	Except	Round	With
Before	Excepting	Save	Within
Behind	For	Since	Without

OBSERVATIONS ON PREPOSITIONS.

1. Every preposition requires the noun or pronoun after it to be in the *objective case*. When any word in the preceding list does not govern an objective case, it becomes an *adverb*; as, He rides *about*.

2. But, in such phrases as *cast up*, *hold out*, *fall on*, the words *up*, *out*, *on*, may be considered as a part of the verb, rather than as prepositions or adverbs.

3. Of the words related, that before the preposition is called the *antecedent* term of the relation; and that which follows it is called the *subsequent* term, or the *regimen* of the preposition, because governed by it in the objective case.

PARSING.—The preposition is parsed by stating what part of speech, and the words between which it shows the relation; thus,

“Before honor is humility.” “*Before*” is a preposition, and shows the relation between “honor,” and “humility.”

QUESTIONS.

What is a preposition? In what case is the noun or pronoun after a preposition? When an objective does not follow a preposition, what part of speech is it to be considered? What is the related word before the preposition called?—the one after it?

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the prepositions in the following exercises.

2. Point out the noun or pronoun after the preposition, and the word to which it is related; thus, "I went from Albany to New York." The preposition *from*, stands before *Albany*, and shows its relation to the verb, "*went*." So also, *to* stands before *New York*, and shows its relation to "*went*."

I went from London to Bath. The king walked about the garden with his son. They dined without me. I fell off a ship into the river near (to) the bridge. This box of wafers is for you. Charles put it upon the table against the inkstand. Turn down the lane through the gate. I shall go up the road after him. Run to that tree near the house. It stands between the trees. Put it on the table at the side of the house. I found the knife among the ashes under the grate. Sit by me. John is at school. They all went except me.

3. Parse the words in preceding Exercises.

Lesson 33.—*Interjections.*

An **INTERJECTION** is a word used in exclamations, to express some emotion of the mind; as, *Oh!* what a sight is here! *Well done!*

A LIST OF INTERJECTIONS.

Adieu! ah! alas! alack! away! aha! be-gone! hark! ho! ha! he! hail! halloo! hum! hush! huzza! hist! hey-dey! lo! O! Oh! O strange! O brave! pshaw! see! well-a-day! &c.

OBSERVATIONS ON INTERJECTIONS.

1. The *Interjection* is *thrown in* among the other words in a sentence, but does not affect their construction.

2. *O* is used to express wishing or exclamation, and should be prefixed only to a noun or a pronoun, in a direct address; as, "O

virtue! How amiable thou art!" *Oh* is used detached from the word, with a point of exclamation after it. It implies an emotion of pain, sorrow, or surprise; as, "*Oh!* what a sight is here."

PARSING.—Interjections are parsed by naming them as such, stating why, and the emotion expressed.

QUESTIONS.

What is an *Interjection*? Name some of them. Does the interjection affect the construction of the other words in a sentence? How do *O* and *Oh* differ in meaning? How, in the manner of writing them? How are interjections parsed?

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the Interjections in the Exercises.
2. Name all the other parts of speech, and parse them.

Hah! I am glad to see you. Well-a-day! I did not expect this. Alas! I am ruined. Indeed! is that true? What! is it possible? Lo! there he is. Hem! I do not think so. O what a benefit education is! Ah! you are a happy fellow. Hush! what was that? Ha, ha, ha! how laughable that is! Ho! come this way. Ah! poor fellow, he is to be pitied. Hurrah! we have finished our lesson. Come! now for the next.

Lesson 34.—Conjunctions.

A CONJUNCTION is a word which connects words, phrases, or sentences; as,

"You *and* I must study; *but* he may go *and* play." "Two *and* two make four." Of him, *and* through him, *and* to him, are all things.

Conjunctions are of two kinds; *Copulative* and *Disjunctive*.

A LIST OF CONJUNCTIONS.

1. COPULATIVE.—Also, and, because, both, for, if, since, that, then, therefore, wherefore.

2. DISJUNCTIVE.—Although, as, as well as, but, either, except, lest, neither, nor, notwithstanding, or, provided, so, than, though, unless, whether, yet, still.

OBS. The copulative conjunctions connect things that are to be taken *together*; as, "You and I (i. e. both of us) must go." The disjunctive conjunctions connect things that are to be taken *separately*, or one to the exclusion of the rest; as, "You or I (i. e. the one or the other, but not both) must go."

PARSING.—Conjunctions are parsed by stating to what class they belong, and the words or sentences which they join together; thus,

"*You and I* must study." *And* is a conjunction, copulative, and connects *You* and *I*.

QUESTIONS.

What is a conjunction? How many kinds of conjunctions are there? What are the copulative?—the disjunctive? How do these two classes differ? How are conjunctions parsed?

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the conjunctions in the following Exercise, the class to which each belongs, and the words which they connect.

2. Parse all the words in order.

Henry and Charles read their lessons. I or he will be there. I will be with you unless you call. I slept well though the dog barked. Read that you may learn. John says that he will do it. As he writes, so do I read; for I am fond of reading. Neither the boys nor the girls are asleep. I would call if I could, but I can not. Take care lest you fall. Two and two make four. He is better than I thought he was, though he behaved ill. Since that has

happened I must go. Do to others as you would that they should do to you.

Lesson 35.—*How to distinguish the Parts of Speech.*

1. The articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, are so few in number that they may be easily committed to memory.

2. The other four, namely, the noun, adjective, verb, and adverb, will be best distinguished by comparing their meaning and use with the definitions of these parts of speech in their place; thus,

1st. Every word that is the name of a person or thing, is a *Noun*; because “A noun is the name of any person, place, or thing.”

2d. A word that qualifies a noun by describing, limiting, or distinguishing it, is an *adjective*; because, “An adjective is a word used to qualify a substantive.”

3d. A word that expresses what a person or thing does, or is, or what is done to a person or thing, is a *verb*; because, “a verb is a word used to express the act, being, or state of its subject.”

4th. A word that modifies another by expressing a circumstance of time, place, manner, &c. is an *adverb*; because “An adverb &c.” [See definition, Lesson 31.]

3. The following technical method, though neither very accurate nor certain, may assist the young pupil in distinguishing these four parts of speech; but the preceding should always be preferred.

1st. A word that makes sense after an article, or the phrase “*I speak of*,” is a *Noun*; as, *A man*; *I speak of money*.

2d. A word that makes sense before the word *thing*, is commonly an *Adjective*; as, *A good thing*; *an old thing*.

3d. A *Verb* makes sense with *I*, *thou*, *he*, or *to* before it; as, *I write*; *he writes*; *to teach*.

4th. The answer to the question, *How?* *When?* *Where?* is generally an *Adverb*; as, *How do you do?* *Very well*. *When did you arrive?* *Yesterday*. *Where is your book?* *It is here*.

OBSERVATIONS.

1. Many words are sometimes to be regarded as one part of speech, and sometimes as another, according to their meaning and use in the place where they are used; thus,

THAT, { *Demonstrative Pronoun*; as “Give me *that* book.”
Relative Pronoun; as, “It is the same *that* I bought.”
Conjunction; as, I am glad *that* you are come.”

MUCH,	{ Adverb ; as, "It is <i>much</i> better to give than to receive." Adjective ; as, "In <i>much</i> wisdom is much grief." Noun ; as, "Where <i>much</i> is given, <i>much</i> is required."
SINCE,	{ Conjunction ; as, "Since we must part." Preposition ; Since that time." Adverb ; as, "Your friend has gone long <i>since</i> ."
BUT,	{ Conjunction ; as, "Poor <i>but</i> honest." Preposition ; as, "All <i>but</i> one." Adverb ; as, "He has <i>but</i> just enough."

2. When the same word is sometimes a preposition and sometimes a conjunction, let it be remembered that the preposition is followed by an objective case; the conjunction is not."

QUESTIONS.

How may we most readily distinguish articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections? How do you distinguish the noun from other parts of speech?—the adjective?—the verb?—the adverb?

Lesson 36.—*Parsing.*

PARSING is the resolving of a sentence into its elements, or parts of speech. Words are parsed two ways; *Etymologically* and *Syntactically*.

1. In *Etymological parsing* the pupil is required to state the part of speech to which a word belongs, and to describe it by its *accidents* and *uses*.

2. In *Syntactical parsing*, the pupil is required, besides parsing the word etymologically, to state its relation to other words in the sentence, and the rules by which these relations are governed.

N. B. Before proceeding to Syntax, the pupil should be expert in etymological parsing. This he can hardly fail to be, if he has attended, in the manner directed, to the exercises already given. The reading lessons in the spelling book, or sentences from any plain writer, may now be analyzed and parsed as already directed. To assist further in this, observe the following

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

In order to parse a sentence, it is necessary to understand it. The sentence being under-

stood, in parsing it, let the following general principles be remembered, viz.

1. Every *Article*, *Adjective*, *Adjective pronoun*, or *Participle*, belongs to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood.
2. The subject of a verb, i. e., the person or thing spoken of, is usually in the nominative, and is said to be the "nominative to the verb."
3. Every noun or pronoun, in the nominative case, when spoken of, is the subject of a verb, expressed or understood, i. e., it is that of which the verb affirms. To this there are a few exceptions.
4. Every verb in the indicative, potential, or subjunctive mood, must have a nominative or subject expressed or understood, i. e., something of which it affirms.
5. Every transitive verb in the active voice, and every preposition, governs a noun or pronoun in the objective case; and every objective case is governed by a transitive verb in the active voice, or by a preposition.
6. Every verb in the infinitive mood is governed by a verb or adjective; sometimes by a noun; and sometimes it stands after the conjunction, *than* or *as*.

QUESTIONS.

What is parsing? How many kinds of parsing are there? What is done in etymological parsing?—in syntactical parsing? What is necessary before parsing a sentence? To what does every article, adjective, &c., belong? In what case is the subject of a verb? When a noun or pronoun in the nominative case is spoken of, what must it have? What must every verb in the indicative, potential, or subjunctive mood, have? What case does every transitive verb in the active voice, and every preposition, have after it? By what is the objective case always governed? When a verb is in the infinitive mood, by what is it governed?

For the answer to the following questions, go back to the pages indicated.

How is a noun parsed? p. 18.—an article? p. 21.—an adjective? p. 25.—a pronoun? pp. 28, 32, 34.—a verb? p. 58.—an adverb? p. 75.—a preposition? p. 77.—an interjection? p. 79.—a conjunction? p. 80. Parse all these as directed in the places referred to, and as described in the next Lesson.

Lesson 37.—Model of Etymological Parsing.

“Give instruction to a wise man, and he will be yet wiser.”

“Give” is a verb, transitive, irregular; *give, gave, given*; in the imperative, active, second person, singular. Its subject is *thou* understood, and its object, *instruction*.

“Instruction” is a noun, neuter, in the objective singular; the object of *give*.*

“To” is a preposition; it points out the relation between its object, *man*, and *give*.

“A” is an article, indefinite, belongs to *man*.

“Wise” is an adjective; compared, *wise, wiser, wisest*; and expresses a quality of *man*.

“Man” is a noun, masculine, in the objective singular; pl. *men*.

“And” is a conjunction, and connects the clauses.

“He” is a pronoun of the third person, masculine, in the nominative singular; the subject of *will be*, and stands for *man*.

“Will be” is a verb, intransitive, irregular; *am, was, been*; in the future, indicative, third person, singular, and affirms of its subject, *he*.

“Yet” is an adverb, modifying *wiser*.

“Wiser” is an adjective, comparative degree; *wise, wiser, wisest*; and belongs to *man*, or is predicated of *he*.

As a further exercise, the pupil may be required to give a reason for every thing affirmed in the preceding model; thus,

Why do you say that *give* is a verb? Why transitive? Why irregular? Why the imperative? Why the second person? Why singular?

Why do you say that *instruction* is a noun? Why neuter? Why singular? Why the objective? &c.

* The person and class of the noun are omitted for reasons stated, ILLUSTRATION, p. 12.

Lesson 38.—*Exercises in Parsing:*

After the same manner as in the preceding Lesson, parse and practice on the following Exercises.

MAXIMS FOR YOUNG AND OLD.

I. EARLY PIETY.—Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth; while the evil days come not, nor the years draw nigh, when thou shalt say, I have no pleasure in them.

Children, obey your parents: honor thy father and mother, is the first commandment with promise.

A wise son heareth a father's instruction, but a scorner heareth not rebuke. The eye that mocketh at his father, and despiseth to obey his mother, the ravens of the valley shall pluck out, and the young eagles shall eat it. A wise son maketh a glad father, but a foolish son is the heaviness of his mother. Whoso loveth instruction loveth knowledge, but he that hateth reproof is brutish.

II. EDUCATION.—Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it.

Quintilian recommends to all parents the timely education of their children; advising to train them up in learning, good manners, and virtuous exercises; since we commonly retain those things in age which we entertained in youth.

'Tis education forms the common mind;
Just as the twig is bent, the tree 's inclined.

An industrious and virtuous education of children is a better inheritance for them than a great estate.

III. PROSPERITY AND ADVERSITY.—If I must make choice either of continual prosperity or adversity, I would choose the latter; for in adversity no good man can want comfort, whereas, in prosperity, most men want discretion. Adversity overcome, is the greatest glory; and, willingly

undergone, the greatest virtue : sufferings are but the trials of gallant spirits.

IV. ANGER.—The continuance of anger is hatred ; the continuance of hatred becomes malice ; that anger is not warrantable which has suffered the sun to go down upon it. Let all men avoid rash speaking. One unquiet, perverse disposition, distempers the peace and unity of a whole family, or society—as one jarring instrument will spoil a whole concert.

V. RICHES.—Riches beget pride ; pride, impatience ; impatience, revenge ; revenge, war ; war, poverty ; poverty, humility ; humility, patience ; patience, peace ; and peace, riches.

The shortest way to be rich, is not by enlarging our estates, but by contracting our desires. A great fortune in the hands of a fool, is a great misfortune. The more riches a fool has, the greater fool he is.

PERSEVERANCE.

It is astonishing to see how much can be done by perseverance. Jessie is not so smart as either of her sisters, yet it strikes me, she will grow up the most sensible woman of the three ; and what do you think is the reason ? Why, because she never says she can not do a thing, but tries, over and over again, till she does it. She is not quick, nor is her memory very good ; therefore it is a great trouble to her to learn a lesson by heart ; but yet she is generally better prepared than the others. Though Louisa can learn to repeat a page of history in ten minutes, and Clara went twice through the grammar before Jessie got to the twentieth page, yet these quick folks often forget as fast as they learn, and, like the hare in the fable, that ran a race with the tortoise, they are left behind at last.—*Useful Stories.*

WASHINGTON AND HIS MOTHER.

Young George was about to go to sea as a midshipman ; every thing was arranged, the vessel lay opposite his father's house, the little boat had come on shore to take him off, and

his whole heart was bent on going. After his trunk had been carried down to the boat, he went to bid his mother farewell, and saw the tears bursting from her eyes. However, he said nothing to her; but he saw that his mother would be distressed if he went, and perhaps never be happy again. He just turned round to the servant, and said, "Go and tell them to fetch my trunk back. I will not go away to break my mother's heart." His mother was struck with his decision, and she said to him, "George, God has promised to bless the children that honor their parents, and I believe he will bless you."

PART THIRD.—SYNTAX.

Lesson 39.—*General Principles of Syntax.*

SYNTAX is that part of Grammar which treats of the proper arrangement and connection of words in a sentence.

A SENTENCE is such an assemblage of words as makes complete sense; as, "Man is mortal."

A PHRASE is two or more words rightly put together, but not making complete sense; as, "In truth."—"To say the least."

A SUBSTANTIVE PHRASE is one which, in the construction of a sentence, is equivalent to a noun or substantive, being the subject of a verb, or the object of a transitive active verb or preposition; as, "To do good, is to be happy," "To do good, forget not; &c."

An ADJUNCT is a preposition with its regimen or subsequent term as related to its principal or antecedent term; as, The waters of Jordan; They came to Corinth.

Sentences are of four kinds: *Declaratory, Interrogatory, Imperative, and Exclamatory.*

All sentences are either *simple* or *compound*.

A *simple* sentence contains only a single affirmation; as, "Life is short."

A *compound* sentence consists of two or more simple sentences connected together; as, "Life, which is short, should be well improved."

Lesson 40.—I. ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

A *simple sentence* or *proposition* consists of two parts—the *subject* and the *predicate*.

The *subject* is that of which something is affirmed; as, *Snow* is white; *Time* flies.

The *predicate* is that which is affirmed of the subject; as, *Snow is white*: *Time flies*.

The subject is commonly a noun or pronoun—an infinitive mood, or part of a sentence; as, *God* is good; *he* does good.

The predicate properly consists of two parts—the *attribute* affirmed of the subject, and the *copula*, by which the affirmation is made. Thus, in the sentence, “*God is love*”—*God* is the subject, and *is love* is the predicate, in which, *love* is the attribute, and *is*, the copula.

The attribute and copula are often expressed by one word; as, “*The fire burns*,” = “*The fire is burning*.” Hence—

The predicate may be a *noun* or *pronoun*, an *adjective*, a *preposition with its case*, an *adverb*, an *infinitive*, or *part of a sentence*, connected always with the subject by a copulative verb as a copula (An. & Pr. Gr. 605); or, it may be a *verb*, which includes in itself both attribute and copula, as above; and is called an *attributive verb*.

QUESTIONS.

What is Syntax? What is a sentence?—a phrase?—a substantive phrase?—an adjunct? How many kinds of sentences are there? What are they? What is a simple sentence?—a compound sentence? What are the parts of a simple sentence? What is the subject?—the predicate? What is the subject commonly? Of what does the predicate consist? What is the *attribute*?—the *copula*? Are both ever expressed by one word? What may the predicate be?

EXERCISES.

In the following, which are sentences? and which are phrases? and why?

In the sentences, mention the subject—the predicate, and why.

Snow is white. Ice is cold. Time flies. Life is short. In truth. God is good. Home is sweet. To be sure. Truth will prevail. Birds fly. The fields are green.

Lesson 41.—THE SUBJECT.

I. The subject of a proposition is either grammatical, or logical.

The *grammatical* subject is the person or thing spoken of, unlimited by other words; as, *Knowledge* is power.

The *logical* subject is the person or thing spoken of, together with all the words or phrases by which it is limited or defined. Thus; in the sentence, "Every man at his best state is vanity," the grammatical subject is "man;" the logical, "Every man at his best state."

When the grammatical subject has no limiting words connected with it, then the grammatical and logical subject are the same; as, *God is good.*

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, which is the grammatical, and which the logical subject?

Point out the subject and the predicate in each.

The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom. All men have not faith. The memory of the just is blessed. Happy is the man that findeth wisdom. The blessing of the Lord maketh rich. Wise men lay up knowledge. A man's pride shall bring him low.

II. The subject of a proposition is either simple or compound.

A *simple* subject consists of one subject of thought, either unlimited, or modified as in the preceding exercises. It may be a *noun* or *pronoun*, an *infinitive mood*, a *participial noun*, or a *clause of a sentence*.

A *compound* subject consists of two or more simple subjects, to which belongs but one predicate; as, *You and I are friends. Time and tide wait for no man. Two and three are five.*

EXERCISES.

In the following, point out the *subjects* and the *predicates*. State whether *simple* or *compound—limited* or *unlimited*. Distinguish the grammatical and logical.

Time and tide wait for no man. The rich and the poor meet together. Two and three are five. Wealth makes many friends. James and John are cousins.

Lesson 42.—Modifications of the Subject.

A grammatical subject, being a noun, may be modified, limited, or described in various ways; as,

1. By a noun in apposition; as, "Milton, the poet, was blind."
2. By a noun in the possessive case; as, "Aaron's rod budded."
3. By an adjunct; as, "The works of *Nature* are beautiful."
4. By an adjective word (i. e., an article, adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle); as, "A good name is better than riches."
5. By a relative pronoun and its clause; as, "He who *does no good*, *does harm*."
6. By an infinitive mood; as, "A desire *to learn* is praiseworthy."
7. By a clause of a sentence; as, "The fact *that he was a scholar*, *was manifest*."
8. Each grammatical subject may have several modifications.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, point out the grammatical subject—the logical—and state how the grammatical subject is modified.

A wise man foreseeth evil. Wisdom's ways are pleasantness. Treasures of wickedness profit nothing. He that walketh uprightly, walketh surely. Nature does nothing in vain. Socrates, the philosopher, died by poison. A desire to excel will stimulate to exertion.

Lesson 43.—Modification of the Modifying Words.

Modifying or limiting words may themselves be modified.

1. A noun modifying another, may itself be modified in all the ways in which a noun, being a grammatical subject, is modified.
2. An adjective qualifying a noun may itself be modified:—
 1. By an adjunct; as, "Blessed are the pure *in heart*."
 2. By an adverb; as, "A *truly* good man hates evil."
 3. By an infinitive; as, "Be swift *to hear*, slow *to speak*."

3. Again, an adverb may be modified:—

1. By an adjunct; as, "Agreeably to *Nature*."
2. By another adverb; as, "Yours *very* sincerely."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, by what words are the modifying nouns modified?—the adjectives?—the adverbs?

The rich man's wealth is his strong city. The very best remedy for certain evils is exercise. Truly great men are far above worldly pride. Your very kind letter has been received.

Lesson 44.—THE PREDICATE.

I. The predicate, like the subject, is either *grammatical* or *logical*.

The *grammatical* predicate consists of the *attribute* and *copula*, not modified by other words.

The *attribute*, which together with the copula forms the predicate, may be expressed by a *noun* or *pronoun*, an *adjective*, a *participle*, a *preposition with its case*, and sometimes an *adverb*; as, *James is a scholar*. *James is diligent*. *James is learned*. *James is in health*. *John is not so*.

The attribute and copula are often expressed by one word, as the fire *burns*—*is burning*.

The attribute is also expressed by an infinitive or a dependent clause; as, "To obey is *to enjoy*." The order is *that we must go*.

The *logical* predicate is the grammatical, together with all the words and phrases that modify it:—Thus, *Nero was cruel to his subjects*—Grammatical predicate, "was cruel"—Logical, "was cruel to his subjects."

When the grammatical predicate has no modifying terms connected with it, the grammatical and the logical predicate are the same; as, "Life is short." "Time flies."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, name the subject and the predicate. In each, tell what is the grammatical, and what is the logical predicate.

The wind blows. The fire burns. Man is mortal. Wisdom is the principal thing. He that tilleth his land

shall be satisfied with bread. The way of a fool is right in his own eyes. A soft answer turneth away wrath.

II. The predicate, like the subject, is either *simple* or *compound*.

A *simple* predicate ascribes to its subject but one attribute; as, "Truth is great."

A *compound* predicate consists of two or more simple predicates, affirmed of one subject; as, "Truth is great and will prevail."

EXERCISES.

In each of the following sentences, name the subject and the predicate. State whether the predicate is *simple* or *compound*. Distinguish the *grammatical* and *logical*.

The fields are green. Cæsar came, saw, and conquered. John reads and writes well. The cities of the enemy were plundered and burned to the ground. The night was dark and rainy. A scorner seeketh wisdom and findeth it not. Charity suffereth long, and is kind.

Lesson 45.—*Modifications of the Predicate.*

A grammatical predicate may be modified or limited in various ways.

When the attribute in the grammatical predicate is a noun, it is modified—

1. By a noun or pronoun limiting or describing the attribute; as, "He is John the Baptist." "He is my friend." "He is my father's friend."
2. By an adjective or participle limiting the attribute; as, "Solomon was a wise king."

When the grammatical predicate is an attributive verb, it is modified—

1. By a noun or pronoun in the objective case, as the object of the verb; as, "We love him." "John reads Homer."
2. By an adverb; as, "John reads well."
3. By an adjunct; as, "They live in London."

4. By an infinitive; as, "Boys love *to play*."

5. By a dependent clause; as, "Plato taught that the soul is immortal."

An infinitive or participle may be modified in all respects as the verb in the predicate.

A modifying clause, if a dependent proposition, may be modified in both its subject and predicate as other propositions.

All other modifying words may themselves be modified as similar words are, when modifying the subject.

Several modifications are sometimes connected with the same predicate.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, name the subject and predicate—distinguish the grammatical and the logical predicate—show in what way the grammatical subject is modified in the logical.

His father and mother are dead: they died a year ago. Hannibal crossed the Alps. Livy and Tacitus were Roman historians. His intention was to destroy the fleet. Time flies rapidly. Sincerity and truth are the basis of every virtue. I wish that he would come soon.

Lesson 46.—Compound Sentences.

A compound sentence consists of two or more simple sentences, or propositions, connected together; as, "If time is money, wasting it must be prodigality."

The propositions which make up a compound sentence are called *members* or *clauses*.

Independent and Dependent Clauses.

The clauses of a compound sentence are either *independent*, or *dependent*—sometimes called *co-ordinate* and *subordinate*.

An independent clause is one that makes complete sense by itself.

A dependent clause is one that makes complete sense only in connection with another clause; thus, "We left when the sun set;" "We left," is an independent clause; "when the sun set," is a dependent one. The dependent clause often stands first.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, state which are simple, and which are compound. In the compound, point out the members or clauses—analyze them, and state which are independent, and which dependent:—

The carriage was brought to the door, and we set out on our journey. The sun had set before we got home. When we arrived, they greeted us with a cordial welcome. Though he slay me, I will trust in him. The subjunctive mood is used when both doubt and futurity are implied. Train up a child in the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it. If thine enemy hunger, feed him.

Lesson 47.—Connection of Clauses.

Clauses of the same kind, whether independent or dependent, are connected by such conjunctions as *and*, *or*, *nor*, *but*, *yet*, &c.; as,

“The harvest is past, the summer is ended, and we are not saved.”

In these, the connective is sometimes omitted.

The members of a compound sentence containing one or more dependent clauses, are usually connected by *relatives*, *conjunctions*, or *adverbs*; thus

Relative.—“That *which can not be cured*, must be endured.”

Conjunction.—“The miser lives poor, *that he may die rich*.”

Adverb.—“We will go *when the cars arrive*.”

See Analytical and Practical Grammar, 645, 646.

EXERCISES.

In the following compound sentences, state which contain only independent clauses; and which, dependent ones. Point out the dependent clauses, and also on what leading clauses they depend. Name the connecting words.

Fear God and keep his commandments. Hear instruction and be wise, and refuse it not. He that is surety for a stranger, shall smart for it. The wicked flee when no man pursueth. When I was a child, I spake as a child. Where thou goest, I will go. If thou be wise, thou shalt be wise for thyself.

The connecting word is sometimes omitted. In the following sentences, point out the dependent clause, and state what connective is omitted.

The injuries we do, and those we suffer, are seldom weighed in the same balance. See thou do it not. Your father thinks you ought to study more.

Lesson 48.—*Abridged Propositions.*

A compound sentence may sometimes be converted into a simple one, by abridging its dependent clause.

A dependent clause is frequently abridged by omitting the connecting word, and changing the verb of the predicate into a participle or infinitive: Thus—

“When the boys have finished their lessons, they will play; abridged, “The boys, having finished their lessons, will play.” “I know that he is faithful;” abridged, “I know him to be faithful.”

EXERCISES.

1. Abridge the following compound sentences into simple ones:

When our work is finished, we will play. When I had visited Europe, I returned to America. It is said, that “the love of money is the root of all evil;” daily observation shows that it is so.

2. Extend the following simple sentences into compound ones:

Connect the following sentences. Time past can never be recalled. The road leading to the castle was blocked up. I know it to be genuine. You know him to be your friend. We hold these principles to be self-evident. His being successful is doubtful. The war being ended, trade revived.

Lesson 49.—Directions for Analysis.

State whether the sentence is simple, or compound.

If simple, name the logical subject, and the logical predicate.

Name the grammatical subject.

Show by what words or phrases, if any, it is modified in the logical.

Show by what modifying words, if any, each modifying word is modified.

Name the grammatical predicate.

Show by what words or phrases, if any, it is modified in the logical.

Show by what modifying words or phrases, if any, each modifying word is modified.

If the sentence is compound, mention the members, or clauses.

State whether they are independent, or dependent.

Show how the members are connected.

Analyze each member as a simple sentence, by showing its subject, predicate, &c., as above.

Models of Analysis.

1. “God is good.”

This is a simple sentence, because it contains a subject and a predicate.

God is the logical subject, because it is that of which the quality is affirmed.

Is good is the logical predicate, because it affirms a quality of its subject. *Is* is the verb or copula, and *good* is the attribute.

In this sentence, the grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical, because they are not modified by other words.

Or, more briefly, thus:—

The logical subject is *God*.

The logical predicate is *is good*, in which *is* is the verb or copula and *good* the attribute.

The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.

2. “The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.”

This is a simple sentence.

The logical subject is *The fear of the Lord*.

The logical predicate is *is the beginning of wisdom*.

The grammatical subject is *fear*. It is limited by the adjunct of *the Lord*, and shown to be limited by the article *the*.

The grammatical predicate is *is beginning*, in which, *is* is the verb or copula, and *beginning* the attribute. It is limited by the adjunct, *of wisdom*, and shown to be limited by *the*.

3. Two and two make four.

This is a simple sentence with a *compound subject*.

The logical subject is *two and two*, compound.

The logical predicate is *make four*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *make*; it is modified by its object *four*.

4. Truth is great and will prevail.

This is a simple sentence with a *compound predicate*.

The logical subject is *truth*.

The logical predicate is *is great and will prevail*, compound.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The first grammatical predicate is *is great*; the second is *will prevail* they are connected by *and*.

5. Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth.

This is a simple sentence, imperative.

The logical subject is *thou* understood.

The logical predicate is *Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *Remember*. It is modified by *now* an adverb of time, also by its object *Creator* limited by the possessive adjective pronoun *thy*. It is further modified by the adjuncts in *the days of thy youth*. In the first of these adjuncts, the term *days* is limited by the second adjunct, and shown to be so by the definite article *the*.

6. Righteousness exalteth a nation; but sin is a reproach to any people.

This is a compound sentence, consisting of two independent or co-ordinate clauses.

The first clause, "Righteousness exalteth a nation" is a simple independent sentence. Of this

The logical subject is *Righteousness*.

The logical predicate is *exalteth a nation*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *exalteth*. It is modified by its object *nation*, and this is shown to be used indefinitely by the article *a* prefixed.

The second clause, *sin is a reproach to any people*, is also a simple independent sentence, and connected with the preceding clause by the adversative conjunction *but*, expressing contrariety or opposition. Of this sentence

The logical subject is *sin*.

The logical predicate is *is a reproach to any people*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *is reproach* of which *is* is the copula, and *reproach* the attribute, shown to be used indefinitely by the article *a* prefixed. It is modified by the adjunct *to any people*. In this adjunct, the word *people* is used in a general or unlimited sense as intimated by the indefinite adj. pronoun *any* prefixed.

7. Whoso (—"he that" or "the man that") loveth instruction loveth knowledge.

This is a compound sentence, containing one independent, and one dependent clause.

The independent clause is *He loveth knowledge*. Of this the logical subject is *He* or *the man*, implied in the compound pronoun *Whoso*.

The logical predicate is *loveth knowledge*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *loveth*. It is modified by its object *knowledge*.

The dependent clause is *that loveth instruction*. It is connected with the preceding clause by the relative *that* restrictive of *he* its antecedent.

The logical subject is the relative *that*.

The logical predicate is *loveth instruction*.

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is *loveth*. It is modified by its object *instruction*.

8. When all thy mercies, O my God!
 my rising soul surveys,
 Transported with the view, I'm lost
 in wonder, love, and praise.

This is a compound sentence consisting of one independent clause or sentence, and one dependent. It is inverted, the independent clause being placed last. It may be resolved and arranged in the natural order; thus,

O my soul! at the time at which my rising soul surveys all thy mercies, I, transported with the view, am lost in wonder, (in) love, and (in) praise.

The independent clause arranged in natural order is "I, transported with the view, am lost in wonder, (in) love, and (in) praise." In this simple sentence,

The logical subject is *I, transported with the view*.

The logical predicate is *am lost in wonder, love and praise*.

The grammatical subject is *I* denoting the speaker. It is described by the participle *transported*, and this again is modified by the adjunct *by the view*. In this adjunct, the term *view* is defined by the dependent clause, and shown to be used definitely by the definite article *the*.

The grammatical predicate is *am lost*. It is modified by the adjuncts *in wonder, (in) love, and (in) praise*; these three adjuncts are connected by the conjunctive *and*, understood after the first, and expressed before the last.

The second clause is a dependent simple sentence, arranged thus in natural order; "*When my rising soul surveys all thy mercies*." It is connected with its principal by the conjunctive adverb *WHEN—* *at the time at which*; the first part "*at the time*," modifies the principal predicate *am lost*; and the second, "*at which*," modifies the predicate of the dependent clause *surveys*.

The logical subject of this clause is *my rising soul*.

The logical predicate is *surveys all thy mercies*.

The grammatical subject is *soul*. It is described by the participial adjective *rising*, and limited or qualified by the possessive *my,—my rising soul*.

The grammatical predicate is *surveys*. It is modified by its object *mercies*; and this again is qualified by the indefinite adjective pronoun *all*, and the possessive *thy*.

The sentence is introduced by the interjectional invocation *O my God!* which has no grammatical connection with the sentence. See Lesson 71.

EXERCISES.

Thus analyze the following sentences:—

Man is mortal. All men are mortal. The hand of the diligent maketh rich. Time is money. The love of money is the root of all evil. A friend in need, is a friend indeed. He that trusteth in his riches, shall fall. When pride cometh, then cometh shame.

Lesson 50.—II. CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

WORDS are arranged in sentences, according to certain rules, called the *Rules of Syntax*.

661. GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

1. In every sentence, there must be a *verb* and its *nominative* (or *subject*), expressed or understood.
2. Every article, adjective, adjective pronoun, or participle, must have a substantive, expressed or understood.
3. Every nominative or subject, has its own verb, expressed or understood.
4. Every finite verb, (that is, every verb not in the infinitive or participles) has its own nominative, expressed or understood.
5. Every possessive case is governed by a noun or substantive denoting the object possessed.
6. Every objective case is governed by a transitive verb in the active voice, or by a preposition; or denotes circumstances of time, value, weight or measure.
7. The infinitive is governed by a verb, a noun, or an adjective.

The exceptions to these general principles will appear in the Rules of Syntax.

PARTS OF SYNTAX.

The Rules of Syntax may all be referred to three heads; viz., *Concord*, or *agreement*, *Government*, and *Position*.

CONCORD is the agreement one word has with another in gender, number, case, or person.

GOVERNMENT is the power which one word has in determining the mood, tense, or case of another word. The word governed by another word is called its *regimen*.

POSITION means the place which a word occupies in relation to other words in a sentence.

In the English language, which has but few inflections, the meaning of a sentence often depends much on the *position* of the words of which it consists.

Lesson 51.—*Substantives in Apposition.*

RULE I.—*Substantives denoting the same person or thing, agree in case;* as, Cicero, the orator.

Words thus used are said to be in *apposition*.

EXPLANATION.—A noun is placed in apposition after another noun, to express some *attribute*, *description*, or *appellation*, belonging to it. Both nouns must be in the same member of the sentence, that is, in the subject, or the predicate. This Rule applies to all words used substantively, and it is only when the word in apposition is a pronoun, that there is any danger of error, because in pronouns only, the nominative and objective are different in form. The word in apposition is sometimes connected with the preceding by the words *as*, *being*, and the like.

EXERCISES.*

1. In the following Exercise, point out the words in apposition. See if they are in the same case. If they are, the sentence is right; if not, it is wrong, and must be corrected. In the following, some sentences are right, others wrong.

First in the hearts of his countrymen is Washington, the hero, the statesman, and the patriot. La Fayette, the friend of Washington, is no more. Your brother has returned, him who went abroad. I bought this paper from a bookseller, he who lives opposite; will you please to give it to that boy, he that stands by the door? Is your sister well, her that was lately sick? Hand that book to John, he who reads so well. The premium for the best writer is given to Thomas, he who took so much pains to excel.

2. In this manner, write correct sentences containing nouns, or a noun and its pronoun, in apposition.

* N. B.—Throughout the Exercises in Syntax—first, correct the errors; secondly, analyze orally the sentences corrected; thirdly, parse any word etymologically; and lastly, parse syntactically the word or words to which the rule refers. See Lesson 75.

Lesson 52.—Adjective and Substantive.

RULE II.—1. *An adjective or participle qualifies the substantive to which it belongs; as, "A good man."*

2. *Adjectives denoting ONE, qualify nouns in the singular—adjectives denoting MORE THAN ONE, qualify nouns in the plural; as, "This man."—"These men."—"Six feet."*

EXPLANATION.—This Rule applies to all adjective words, namely, *adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles*. These being indeclinable in English, there is danger of error only in the use of such as imply number.

OBS. 1. Adjectives denoting one, are *this, that, one, each, every, either, neither*; and the ordinal numerals, *first, second, third, &c.*

OBS. 2. Adjectives denoting more than one, are *these, those, many, several*; and the cardinal numerals, *two, three, four, &c.*

OBS. 3. Some adjectives implying number, can be joined with either singular or plural nouns, according to the sense; as, *some, all, no, &c.*; thus, *Some man—Some men.*

OBS. 4. EXCEPTION. When a noun following the numeral is used in an adjective sense, (Lesson 10, Obs. 1), it has not the plural termination; thus, we say, *A four inch plank; a three foot wall; a four horse team; a ten acre field, &c.*

OBS. 5. Adjectives should not be used as adverbs; thus, *miserable poor; sings elegant*, should be, *miserably poor; sings elegantly* (686).

OBS. 6. When two or more objects are contrasted, *this* refers to the last mentioned, and *that*, to the first; as, "Virtue and vice are opposite qualities; *that* ennobles the mind, *this* debases it."

OBS. 7. COMPARISON. When two objects are compared, the comparative degree is commonly used; when more than two, the superlative; as, "He is *taller* than his father." "John is the *tallest* amongst us."

OBS. 8. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper; thus, "James is *more taller* than John,"—omit *more*. "He is the *most*

wisest of the three,"—omit *most*. For varieties and exceptions, see An. & Pr. Gr. 677-706.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercise, point out the adjectives, and the substantives which they qualify. Tell which denote one, and which more than one, and make the substantives singular or plural as the adjectives require.

A well six fathom deep. A pole ten foot long. A field twenty rod wide. I have not seen him this ten days. Those sort of people are common. These kind of things are useless. You will find the remark in the second or third pages. Each have their own place, and they know it. The second and third page were torn.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain an adjective of number, (see Obs. 1, 2, 3,) and a substantive in the number required by the adjective. Thus, *Every man* had a pole *six feet* long.

Lesson 53.—*The Article.*

RULE III.—1. The article *A* or *AN* is put before common nouns in the singular number, when used INDEFINITELY; as, "*A* man"—"*An* apple;" that is, "*any* man"—"*any* apple."

2. The article *THE* is put before common nouns, either singular or plural, when used DEFINITELY; as, "*The* sun rises"—"*The* city of New York."

EXPLANATION.—It is impossible to give a precise Rule for the use of the article in every case. The best general rule is, to observe what the sense requires. The following usages may be noticed. (For others, see An. & Pr. Gr. 707-728).

Obs. 1. The article is omitted before a noun that is unlimited, or that stands for a *whole species*; as, *Man* is mortal; and before the names of minerals, metals, arts, &c. Some nouns denoting the species, have the article always prefixed; as, *The dog* is a more grate-

ful animal than the cat. The lion is a noble animal. Others never have it; thus, Lead is softer than iron. Wood is lighter than stone.

OBS. 2. The last of two nouns after a comparative, should have no article when they both refer to one person or thing; as, He is a better reader than writer.

OBS. 3. When two or more adjectives, or epithets, belong to the *same* subject, the article should be placed before the first, and omitted before the rest; but when they belong to different subjects, the article is prefixed to each; thus, "A red and white rose," indicates *one* rose, partly red and partly white. "A red and a white rose," means *two* roses, one red and *one* white. "Johnson, the bookseller and stationer," denotes *one* person. "Johnson, the bookseller, and the stationer," denotes *two*.

EXERCISES.

1. The following sentences are wrong only in the use of the article. Show why they are wrong, and correct them.

A great talents without a virtue are dangerous. A man is mortal. A time flies. The money is scarce. John is a better farmer than a scholar. The black and the white spaniel runs fastest. The black and white spaniel run together. The time and the tide wait for no man. A red and a white rose grows on this bush. The black and white man came together. Smith, the tanner and currier, entered into partnership. Smith, the tanner and the currier, is a man of a great industry.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain the article *a*, or *an*, or *the*;—others, which shall contain nouns without an article.

Lesson 54.—Personal Pronouns.

RULE IV.—Pronouns agree with the words for which they stand, in gender, number, and person; as, All that a man hath, will he give for his life.

EXPLANATION.—This Rule applies only to the personal and

possessive pronouns. These stand instead of nouns of all genders, numbers, and persons; and this Rule means, that when any of these pronouns is used, it must be of the same gender, number, and person, with the noun for which it stands.

PERSONAL PRONOUN—SPECIAL RULES.

RULE 1.—*When a pronoun refers to two or more words taken together, it becomes plural, and if the words are of different persons, it prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third; as, “He and she did their duty.” “John and you and I will do our duty.”*

RULE 2.—*When a pronoun refers to two or more words in the singular, taken separately; or to one of them exclusively, it must be singular; as, “A clock or a watch moves merely as it is moved.”*

RULE 3.—*But if either of the words referred to is plural, the pronoun must be plural also; as, “Neither he nor they trouble themselves.”*

OBS. 1.—A pronoun referring to a collective noun in the singular, expressing many as one whole, should be in the neuter singular; but when the pronoun expresses many as individuals, the pronoun should be plural; as, “The army proceeded on its march.”—“The court were divided in their opinions.”

OBS. 2.—The word containing the answer to a question, must be in the same case as the word that asks it; as, “Who said that?” Ans. “I (said it).” “Whose books are these?” Ans. “John’s.” For other Notes and Observations, see *An. & Pr. Gr.* 731-741.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercise, point out the personal and possessive pronouns, and the nouns for which they stand. Change the pronoun, if necessary, for one of the same gender, number, and person, with its noun.

Give to every man their due. Answer not a fool according to her folly. Take handfuls of ashes and sprinkle it toward heaven. Rebecca took raiment and put them upon Jacob. Thou and he shared it between them. Who is there? Me. Who did that? Him. Whom did you meet? He. Whose pen is that? Her or mine’s. Virtue forces her way through obscurity, and sooner or later it is sure to be rewarded.

Lesson 55.—Relative and Antecedent.

RULE V.—*The relative agrees with its antecedent in number and person; as, "Thou who speakest."—"The book which was lost."*

EXPLANATION.—The relative stands instead of the noun or pronoun called its antecedent, and also connects the idea expressed in its clause with the antecedent, either for the purpose of further describing it, or of limiting and restricting it. [See Lesson 13, Obs. 1]. Consequently, the relative is always regarded as of the same person and number as its antecedent; and, if the nominative to a verb, the verb will be of the same number and person also. For remarks respecting the antecedent, and the use of *who* and *which*, see Lesson 13.

RULE 1.—*Who is applied to persons, or things personified; as, "The man who"—"The fox who had never seen a lion."*

RULE 2.—*Which is applied to things, and inferior animals; as, "The house which;" "The dog which." See Lesson 13, 4.*

RULE 3.—*That, as a relative, is used instead of who or which—*

1. After the superlative degree, the words *same*, *all*, and sometimes *no*, *some*, and *any*; and generally in restrictive clauses; as, "It is the best *that* can be got."
2. When the antecedent includes both persons and things; as, "The man and the horse *that* we saw yesterday."
3. After the interrogative *who*, and sometimes after the personal pronouns; as, "Who *that* knows him will believe it." "I *that* speak in righteousness."
4. Generally, when the propriety of *who* or *which*, is doubtful as, "The child *that* was placed in the midst."

For other remarks, see An. & Pr. Gr. 748-759.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the relative, and the noun or pronoun to which it refers. Tell the use of the relative and its clause in each sentence. Alter the relative, if necessary, as required by its antecedent, according to **SUB-RULE 1.** If the relative is in the nominative, put its verb in the same number and person as the relative or the antecedent. Give a reason for each change.

The friend which I love. The vice whom I hate. There is the dog who followed us. They which seek wisdom, find it. All which beauty, all which wealth e'er gave. "I who speak unto you, am he." It is the best situation

which can be got. The man and the horse whom we saw.

2. Write a few short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following nouns or pronouns limited by a relative and its clause; *viz. Man, house, dog, tree, field, hat, boot, chair; I, thou, he, we, you, they*; thus, "There is the *man* who makes baskets." Parse the sentences, and tell the number and person of the relative, and why.

Lesson 56.—Subject Nominative.

RULE VI.—*The subject of a finite verb is put in the nominative; as, "I am."—"Thou art."—"He is."—"They are."—"Time flies."*

EXPLANATIONS.—A finite verb is a verb limited by person and number, i. e., a verb in the indicative, potential, subjunctive, or imperative mood.

The subject of a finite verb may be a *noun*, a *pronoun*, an *infinitive mood*, a *participle*, used as a *noun*, or a *clause of a sentence*. All these, when the subject of a verb, may be regarded as the nominative. See *An. & Pr. Gr.* 761–767.

EXERCISES.

In each sentence, point out the verb and its subject. If the subject is not in the right case, change it.

Him and me are of the same age. Suppose you and me go. Them are excellent. It is probable that her and me will return. Robert is taller than me, but I am as strong as him. I am older than him; but he is taller than me.

Lesson 57.—Nominative Absolute.

RULE VII.—*A substantive whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative absolute.*

SPECIAL RULES.

RULE 1.—*A substantive with a participle, whose case depends on no other word, is put in the nominative absolute; as, "He being gone, only two remain.*

RULE 2.—*A person or thing addressed, without a verb or governing word, is put in the nominative; as, "I remain, dear sir, yours truly." "Plato, thou reasonest well."*

RULE 3.—*A substantive unconnected in mere exclamation, is put in the nominative; as, "O the times!—O the manners!"*

RULE 4.—*A substantive used by pleonasm, before an affirmation, is put in the nominative; as, "Your fathers, where are they?"*

Under these Rules, a mistake can be made only in the case of pronouns.

EXERCISES.

Point out the word in the case absolute or independent: if wrong, put it in the right case, and state why it should be in the nominative.

Me being absent, the business was neglected. Thee being present, he would not tell what he knew. Oh! happy us, surrounded with so many blessings. Thee too! Brutus, my son! cried Caesar overcome.

Lesson 58.—Verb and its Nominative.

RULE VIII.—*A verb agrees with its nominative in number and person; as, "I read," "Thou readest," "He reads," &c.*

EXPLANATION.—This Rule means, that a verb must always be in the same number and person with its subject or nominative. This Rule and the Special Rules under it apply, also, when the subject is an infinitive mood, or clause of a sentence. See under Rule VI.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercises, tell which words are verbs—which the nominatives—whether the verb and its nominative agree—and if not, make them agree by putting the verb in the person and number of its nominative.

You was there. They was absent. Your brothers has been abroad. Has your sisters come home? Was you present? The letters has come. Fair words costs nothing. There is no roses without thorns.

2. Take the verb *to write*, and make it agree with *I*—with *thou*—with *he*—with *they*—in all the tenses of the indicative mood. Take any other verb, and do the same.

Lesson 59.—Verb and its Subject.

SPECIAL RULES UNDER RULE VIII.

RULE 1.—*A singular noun used in a plural sense, has a verb in the plural; as, "Ten sail are in sight."*

RULE 2.—*Two or more substantives singular, taken together, have a verb in the plural; as, "James and John are here."*

Exc.—But when substantives connected by *and*, denote one person or thing, the verb is singular; as, "Why is dust and ashes proud?"

RULE 3.—*Two or more substantives singular, taken separately, or one to the exclusion of the rest, have a verb in the singular; as, "James or John attends."*

RULE 4.—*When substantives taken together, are of different persons, the verb agrees with the one next to it; as, "James or I am in the wrong?" Better, "James is in the wrong, or I am."*

Obs. So also when the substantives are of different numbers, in which case the plural number is usually placed last.

RULE 5.—1. *A collective noun expressing many, considered as ONE WHOLE, has a verb in the singular; as, "The company was large."*

2. *But when a collective noun expresses many, considered as INDIVIDUALS, the verb must be plural; as, "My people do not consider."*

EXERCISES.

In the following Exercises, put the verb in the number required by the Rule, and give the Rule for the correction.

(1) Forty head of cattle was grazing in the meadow. Twelve brace of pigeons was sold for one dollar. (2) Life and death is in the power of the tongue. Out of the same mouth proceedeth blessing and cursing. (3) Either the boy or the girl were present. (4) I or thou am to blame. (5) The people was very numerous.

Lesson 60.—The predicate Substantive.

RULE IX.—*The predicate substantive after a verb, is put in the same case as the subject before it; as, "It is I."—"He shall be called John."—"I took it to be him."*

EXPLANATION.—Verbs having the same case after as before them, are chiefly those which signify *to be*, or *to become*; passive verbs of *naming*, *making*, *choosing*, and the like; as, “*John became a scholar*”; “*David was made King*.” The nominative before the finite verb is the *subject*, the one after it is the *predicate*, and the verb is the *copula*. Hence they all form a simple sentence; and though the nouns denote the same person or thing, and are in the same case, they are not in apposition as in RULE I; but the noun after a verb is predicated of the substantive before it, or which is its subject.

EXERCISES.

In the following Exercises, in each sentence, point out the verb to which the Rule applies, and the noun or pronoun before and after it. Tell the case of the one before, and why. Put the one after the verb in the same case as the one before it, give the Rule for the change, and show how it applies. Tell the subject and predicate in each sentence.

It is me. It could not have been them. I am certain it was not me. That is the man who I thought it to be. Is that thee? Whom did they say it was? I understood it to have been he. Was it me that said so? It could not have been me; but it might have been him, or her, or both.

2. Write similar correct sentences, in each of which shall be one of the following verbs, with the same case after it as before it, viz., *is*, *are*, *became*, *was made*, *shall be chosen*, *to be*, *to be called*, *to be appointed*. Apply the Rule as above.

Lesson 61.—Objective after a Transitive Verb.

RULE X.—*A transitive verb in the active voice, governs the objective case; as, “We love him.”—“Whom did they send?”*

EXPLANATION.—The transitive verb in the active voice, always tells what its subject or nominative does to some other person or thing, called its *object*. The rule means, that this *object* must always be put in the *objective case*. This rule is liable to be violated only when the object is a *pronoun*, because in all other words, the nominative and the objective case are alike.

Nouns and personal pronouns in the objective case, are usually placed after the verb—relative and interrogative pronouns, usually before it.

The infinitive mood, a participle used as a noun, or a part of a sentence, may be the object of a transitive active verb; as, "Boys love to play."—"He practised reading aloud."—"I know what he will do."

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercises, point out the transitive verb—its subject—its object,—put that object in the proper case—tell what that case is, and why.

He loves her and I. Did they hurt ye? We know he and they. He and they we know. The friend who I love. Take care who you admit. I will not give ye up. He who you ignorantly worship, declare I unto you.

2. Write a number of sentences, each of which shall contain an active transitive verb; such as, *do, have, touch, hurt, love, &c.*, followed by a personal pronoun in the proper case. Parse them, and give the Rule.

SPECIAL RULES.

RULE 1.—*An intransitive verb does not govern an objective case*; as, "Repenting him of his design"—omit *him*. X

RULE 2.—*Intransitive verbs in a transitive sense* (Lesson 16, Obs. 8), *govern the objective case*; as, "He runs a race."

RULE 3.—*Intransitive verbs do not admit a passive voice, except when used transitively* (Lesson 18, 5); as, "My race is run."

RULE 4.—*A transitive verb does not admit a preposition after it*; as, "I will not allow of it;"—omit *of*. \

RULE 5.—*Verbs signifying to NAME, APPOINT, CONSTITUTE, and the like, generally govern two objectives, viz.: the DIRECT, denoting the person or thing acted upon; and the INDIRECT, denoting the result of the act expressed*; as, "They named him John."

EXERCISES UNDER THE SPECIAL RULES.

Show how the Rule is violated in each of the following sentences, and correct the error.

(1) Robert plays himself with his lessons. He lies him down on the grass. (2) They expatiated themselves largely. Planters grow cotton. Sit thee down. (3) I am resolved to go. Is your father returned? He is almost perished with cold. (4) They do not want for any thing. His servants ye are, to whom ye obey. False accusation can not diminish from his real merit. (5) He was chosen for a Senator.

Lesson 62.—Objective after a Preposition.

RULE XI.—A preposition governs the objective case; as, "To whom much is given, of him much shall be required."

EXPLANATION.—This Rule means, that the noun or pronoun after a preposition, must be put in the objective case. This rule can be violated only in the use of pronouns.

OBS. 1. *Whom* and *which* are sometimes governed by a preposition at some distance after them. But this should generally be avoided; thus, "This is he *whom* I gave it *to*,"—better—"to *whom* I gave it."

OBS. 2. The preposition is sometimes *omitted*. It is then said to be understood; thus, "Give (to) me that book." Here, "*me*" is governed by "*to*," understood.

SPECIAL RULE.

RULE.—*Nouns denoting time, value, weight, or measure are commonly put in the objective case without a governing word; as, "He was absent six months last year."—"It cost a shilling."—"It is not worth a cent."—"It weighs a pound."—"The wall is six feet high, and two feet thick."*

This may be called the objective of *time, value, &c.*

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the prepositions and the word governed by each. Put that word in the proper case, if not in it already. Give the Rule.

This belongs to my father and I. Who did you get it from? Who shall we send it to? Divide it between ye, or give it to him and I. This is a small matter between you and I. Who did you give it to? Who do you work for?

2. In this way, write a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain a preposition (see the list, p. 77), followed by a personal or relative pronoun in the proper case. Parse the sentences, and give the Rule for the case after the preposition.

OBS. 3. When the prepositions *to, at, in*, stand before names of places, the following usage should be carefully observed, viz.:

1. *To*—is used after words denoting *motion toward*; as, "He went to Spain; but, in this case, it is omitted before *home*, as, "He went *home*."

2. *At*—is used before names of *houses*, *villages*, *towns*, and *foreign cities*; as, “He resides at the Mansion house—at Geneva—at Lisbon.”
3. *In*—is used before names of *countries* and *large cities*; as, “He lives in England—in London.” But before these, *at* is used after the verbs *touch*, *arrive*, *land*; and sometimes after the verb *to be*.
4. In speaking of one’s residence in a city, *at* is used before the No., and *in* (generally understood), before the street.

This Observation contains four *special rules*, numbered as above.

EXERCISES.

Obs. 3.—1. In the following sentences, change the preposition used, for that which usage requires, and give the special Rule.

I have been *to* home all day. Have you been *to* Boston? They live *in* Union Village; formerly they lived *at* New York. He has been *at* England, and has just returned *to* home. We touched *in* France on our way *to* home. He lives *to* Washington, *at* B. Street, but resided formerly in No. 50 Broadway, New York.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain the name of some city, village, county or state, preceded by a verb or word denoting motion toward, or by the verb *be*, *live*, *dwell*, &c., and the appropriate preposition.

Lesson 63.—*Prepositions after certain words.*

RULE XII.—*Certain words and phrases should be followed by appropriate prepositions: Thus—*

Accuse <i>of</i> .	Change <i>for</i> ,— <i>to</i> ,— <i>into</i> .
Acquit <i>of</i> .	Compare <i>with</i> , in respect of quality,— <i>to</i> for the sake of illustration.
Adapted <i>to</i> .	
Ask or inquire <i>of</i> a person, <i>for</i> what we wish to see,— <i>after</i> what we wish to hear of.	Confide <i>in</i> .
Believe <i>in</i> , sometimes <i>on</i> .	Conformable, consonant <i>to</i> , <i>with</i> .
Betray <i>to</i> a person,— <i>into</i> a thing.	Conversant <i>with</i> men,— <i>in</i> things.
Call <i>on</i> a person,— <i>at</i> a place.	Copy <i>from</i> life, nature,— <i>after</i> a parent.

Dependent upon.	Made of.
Die of disease,— <i>by</i> an instrument or violence,— <i>for</i> another.	Marry to. Need of.
Differ from.	Observation of.
Difficulty in.	Prejudice against.
Diminish from,—diminution of.	Prevail (to persuade) with, on,
Disappointed in what we have,— of what we expect.	upon, — (to overcome), over, against.
Discourage from.	Profit by.
Discouragement to.	Protect (others) from,—(ourselves) against.
Engaged in a work,— <i>for</i> a time.	Provide with or for.
Equal to, with.	Reduce (to subdue) under,—in other cases, to; as, to powder.
Exception from,—sometimes to.	Regard for,—in regard to.
Expert at (before a noun),— <i>in</i> , (before an active participle).	Sick of.
Familiar to, with. A thing is familiar to us; we are familiar with it.	Swerve from.
Free from.	Taste (meaning capacity or inclination) for,—(meaning actual enjoyment), of.
Glad of something gained by ourselves,—at something that befalls another.	Tax with, (e. g., a crime),— <i>for</i> the state.
Independent of.	Value upon, or on.
Indulge with what is not habitual,— <i>in</i> what is habitual.	Worthy of,—sometimes the of is understood.
Insist upon.	

EXPLANATION.—As words connected by prepositions, are differently related, care must be taken to employ the preposition which best expresses the relation intended. The sense and the practice of correct writers, will here be our best guide. The above are only a few examples out of many.

Obs.—The same preposition that follows the *verb* or *adjective*, usually follows the *noun* derived from it, and *vice versa*; as, *Confide in*,—confidence *in*,—confident *in*.

EXERCISES.

1. Change the preposition where necessary in each of the following sentences, for that required by the Rule.

He was accused with robbery, and acquitted from the charge. I have been calling upon an old friend. Call in the post-office. I differ with you in that matter. John died by consumption, Henry died of the sword, and Robert is sick with the jaundice. Try to profit from experience. You have a taste of poetry. Conversant in men and things.

Compare this piece to that, and see which is the best. I could never bear the taste for tobacco. This is an exception against the general rule.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more of the words in the preceding table, followed by the appropriate preposition.

Lesson 64.—*The Possessive Case.*

RULE XIII.—*A Substantive that limits the signification of another, must be put in the possessive; as, "Virtue's reward."—"John's books."—"The sun's rays."*

EXPLANATION.—The noun or pronoun in the possessive, always limits the noun that governs it: Thus, "Virtue's reward;" the latter word does not mean reward in general, or any indefinite reward, but a particular reward, viz.: Virtue's. This Rule applies to the relative pronoun, and to the possessive case of the personal pronoun, when the noun denoting the thing possessed is understood; as, "That book is *mine*." When expressed, the possessor is denoted by the possessive adjective pronoun; as, "That is *my* book."

Obs. 1.—When several nouns come together in the possessive case, implying common possession, the sign of the possessive ('s) is annexed to the last, and understood to the rest; as, "Jane and Lucy's books," i. e., books the common property of Jane and Lucy. But if common possession is not implied, or if several words intervene, the sign of the possessive should be annexed to each; as, "Jane's and Lucy's books," i. e., books, some of which are Jane's and others, Lucy's.

Obs. 2. When a name is complex, consisting of more terms than one, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last only; as, "Julius Cæsar' Commentaries"—"The Bishop of London's Charge."

Obs. 3. The noun limited by the possessive is frequently understood; as, "He stays at his father's" (house).

Obs. 4. The preposition *of*, with the objective, is frequently equivalent to the possessive, but not always. In the use of it, both harshness and ambiguity should be avoided.

~~Ex.~~ For several of the minutiae belonging to this Rule, see An. & Pr. Gr. 889-850.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following Exercises, point out the noun or pronoun which limits, and the noun whose signification is limited by it; and if understood, supply it. Put the limiting word in the possessive case. When several words coming together should be in the possessive, or when the name is complex, add the sign of the possessive ('s) to the proper term.

The boys book. The girls bonnet. The Ladys book, a birds nest, a bear skin. A mothers tenderness, and a fathers care, are natures gifts for mans advantage. A horse tooth. James and Thomas feet are cold. Williams and Marys reign. Sheldon & Company's bookstore is in New York. James loss is Thomas gain. The Farmers Guide. The Scholars Companion. The Court's session is put off. The meeting's president was appointed.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain two nouns, one limiting the other. Put the limiting word in the proper case.

Lesson 65.—Subjunctive Mood.

RULE XIV.—1. *The subjunctive mood is used in dependent clauses, when both contingency or doubt, and futurity are expressed; as, "If he continue to study, he will improve."*

2. *When contingency or doubt only, and not futurity, is implied, the indicative is used; as, "If he has money, he keeps it."*

EXPLANATION.—Doubt and futurity are both implied when the auxiliary *shall* or *should*, referring to future time, can be inserted before the verb without changing the meaning: thus, "Though he fall," and "Though he should fall," mean the same thing. It is only in the present tense and third person singular, that there is danger of error under this Rule, except in the verb *to be*.

REMARK.—Many of the best writers, and some distinguished grammarians, often use the subjunctive present, when mere doubt

or contingency is expressed, and not futurity. A contrary practice of using the indicative where both doubt and futurity are implied, now begins to prevail; thus, "If he *continues* to study, he will improve." But the weight of good authority still, is evidently in favor of the preceding Rules. A general adherence to them would have this advantage, that the mood used would be a certain guide to the sense intended.

SUB-RULE.—Lest *and* that, *annexed to a command, require the subjunctive mood*; as, "Love not sleep, lest thou *come* to poverty." "Take heed that thou *speak* not to Jacob, either good or bad."

OBS.—The subjunctive mood, in the past tense, expresses a supposition with respect to something present, but implies a denial of the thing supposed; as, "If I *were* a nightingale, I would sing;" implying, "I am not."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, state whether the verb following "if" or "though" should be in the subjunctive or indicative mood, and why; and make the necessary correction.

If there be a rule, it should be observed. Though he be rich, he is not happy. If the mail arrives to-morrow, we shall have letters. If he studies diligently when he goes to school, he will improve. If he is discreet when he goes abroad, he will gain friends. If he have money, he must have earned it.

Lesson 66.—Infinitive Mood.

RULE XV.—*The infinitive mood is governed by VERBS, NOUNS, or ADJECTIVES; as, "I desire to learn."—"A desire to learn."—"Anxious to learn."*

SPECIAL RULES.

RULE 1.—*One verb being the SUBJECT of another, is put in the infinitive; as, "To study is profitable."*

RULE 2.—*One verb governs another as its OBJECT or complement in the infinitive; as, "Boys love to play."*

RULE 3.—*The infinitive, as the subject or object of a verb, sometimes has a subject of its own in the objective case; as, "For us to do so, would be improper."—"I know him to be prudent."*

RULE 4.—*The infinitive is used as a predicate nominative after any verb as a copula; as, "You are to blame."*

RULE 5.—*To, the sign of the infinitive, is not used after the verbs BID, DARE, NEED, MAKE, SEE, HEAR, FEEL, and LET, in the active voice, nor after LET in the passive; as, "I saw him do it;" not "to do it."*

RULE 6.—*The infinitive is used to express the PURPOSE, END, or DESIGN of the preceding act; as, "Some who came to scoff, remained to pray."*

RULE 7.—*In comparisons, the infinitive mood is put after so—as, too, or than; as, "Be so good as to read this."—"Too old to learn."—"Wiser than to undertake it."*

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, tell which verb is in the infinitive mood, and what governs it. State whether it is the subject or object of the verb. Insert or omit *to*, the sign of the infinitive, and give a reason according to the Rule.

Strive learn. Cease do evil. Learn do well. He needs not to write. I would make you to take care. He dares not to do a wicked action; nor will he dare do it. I heard him to say so. He was heard say so. Let James to do this. Bid him to speak to me. Did you see him to do that? No, but I heard him to do it. Did you hear the bell to ring? Make him to go. He was made go.

2. Write short sentences, in each of which shall be one verb in the infinitive mood, as the subject of another verb—as the object—to express the end or design—with *to* properly omitted—with a subject of its own in the objective case.

Lesson 67.—Construction of Participles.

RULE XVI.—Participles have the construction of NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, and VERBS.

REM.—To participles used in these ways, the Rules of Syntax for nouns, adjectives, and verbs, may generally be applied. (See An. & Pr. Gr. 891-907).

SPECIAL RULES.

RULE 1.—*When the present or perfect participle is used as a noun, a noun before it is put in the possessive case; as, "Much depends on the pupil's composing frequently."*

EXPLANATION.—The present participle is used as a verbal noun, whenever it is the subject of a verb, or the object of a transitive verb or preposition. Under this rule, the verbal noun may be modified in all respects as the verb.

OBS. 1.—A pronoun before the verbal noun must be the possessive pronoun, and not the possessive case; as, "Much depends on *your* composing frequently," (not *yours*).

RULE 2.—*When the present participle used as a noun, has an ARTICLE or ADJECTIVE before it, the preposition or follows; as, "By the observing of these rules."— "A complete forsaking of the truth."*

EXPLANATION.—When used in this way, the participle is regarded as a noun simply, and has not the government or modifications of the verb.

OBS. 2.—The sense will often be the same, if both the article and the preposition be omitted; but the one should not be omitted without the omission of the other; thus, "By observing these rules." In some cases, however, these two modes express very different ideas, and therefore attention to the sense is necessary, as directed in the following rule.

RULE 3.—*When the verbal noun expresses something of which the noun following denotes the DOER, it should have the article and the preposition; as, "It was told in the hearing of the witness."— But when it expresses something of which the noun following does not denote the doer, but the OBJECT, both should be omitted; as, "The court spent much time in hearing the witness."*

OBS. 3.—*Of can never be used after the verbal noun when a preposition follows it; thus, "By attending to these rules," can not be changed into, "By the attending of to these rules."*

RULE 4.—*The past participle, and not the past tense, should be used after the auxiliaries HAVE and BE; as, "I have written" (not *wrote*)—"The letter is written" (not *wrote*).*

REM.—So also, the past participle should not be used for the past tense; as, "He ran;" not "He run." "I saw;" not "I seen."

EXPLANATION.—This Rule can be violated only when the past tense and past participle differ in spelling.

Obs. 4.—The participle in *ing* is sometimes used in a passive sense after the verb *to be*, to express the continued suffering of an action; as, “The house *is building*,” not *is being built*.

EXERCISES.

(RULE 1).—In the following Exercise, tell which is the verbal noun, and how you know it to be used as such. If a noun stands before it, put that noun in the proper case, and give the Rule.

My brother being sick, is the cause of his absence. A man making a fortune, depends partly on him pursuing a proper course. John attempting too much, was the cause of his failure. Hers going away was not observed.

(RULE 2).—In the following Exercise, point out the participial noun, and tell how you know it to be so used. See what words are before and after it, and if not right, according to the rule, make them so, and give the rule for the change.

Learning of any thing well, requires application. The doing our duty is commendable. By reading of good books the mind is improved. Of the making many books there is no end. By exercising of our faculties they are improved. The giving to every man his own is a sacred duty.

(RULE 3).—Consider whether the noun following the present participle denotes the *doer*, or the *object* of the act expressed by it, and correct the sentence accordingly.

At hearing the ear, they shall obey. Because of provoking his sons and daughters, the Lord abhorred them. The greatest pain is felt in the cutting of the skin.

(RULE 4). 1.—In the following Exercise, when the past tense stands after the auxiliary *have*, or *be*, change it into the past participle, and give the rule for the change.

He should have wrote. Have you spoke to the master? I am almost froze. She has just began to read. James has broke his arm. You should have drove more slowly. He has drank too much, and should be took home. He might have rode if he had chose.

2. Correct the following errors, and give a reason for the change.

I seen him an hour ago. I done what you told me.

James run a mile in ten minutes, and had not began to be tired. The school begun yesterday. He ought to have went, or at least to have wrote. That is wrong, you had not ought to done it.

3. Write short sentences, in each of which shall be one of the following verbs, in the present-perfect or past-perfect indicative active, viz., *begin, run, write, freeze, eat, drink*. Parse the sentences, and apply the Rule.

4. Write short sentences, with the following verbs in the passive voice; viz., *write, begin, shake, sink, speak, give*. Parse them, and apply the Rule.

Lesson 68.—*The Order of Time.*

RULE XVII.—*In the use of verbs, and words that in point of time relate to each other, the order of time must be observed; as, “I have known him these many years”—not “I know him these many years.”*

EXPLANATION.—This Rule is general, and here also the sense is the best guide. The following principles may be noticed in this place:

1. That which is always true, is expressed in the present tense.
2. That which is past, but viewed as continued in the present, is expressed in the present-perfect tense.
3. Verbs having the auxiliaries *shall, will, may, can*, can be associated in a sentence with other verbs in the present only; those with *might, could, would, should*, with verbs in the past.
4. The present infinitive expresses what is cotemporary with, or subsequent to, the time of the governing verb; the perfect infinitive expresses what is antecedent to that time.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, point out the verb which is wrong in respect of tense. Put it in the proper tense, and tell why it is changed.

It was said that fever always produced thirst; that heat always expanded metals; and that truth was immutable. He is now absent a week. I have been abroad last year.

If he would lend me that book, I will be obliged to him. He can do it if he would. I intended to have written; but I still hoped he would have come. Rome is said to be built seven hundred years before the Christian era. Nero is said to persecute the Christians. He has been gone long before I knew it.

2. Write short sentences, and express, in each, something which you *hoped*, *feared*, *desired*, *intended*, to do yesterday, before yesterday;—which you *hope*, *fear*, &c., to do to-day, to-morrow. Also what some one *did* yesterday,—before yesterday,—always does,—does now,—has just now done,—will do to-morrow,—before to-morrow night.

Lesson 69.—Construction of Adverbs.

RULE XVIII.—*Adverbs modify VERBS, ADJECTIVES, and other ADVERBS*; as, “John *speaks distinctly*; he is *remarkably diligent*, and reads *very correctly*.”

SPECIAL RULES.

RULE 1.—*Adverbs should not be used as adjectives, nor adjectives as adverbs*; as, “The preceding (not the *above*) extract.”

RULE 2.—*Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative, and should not be used unless affirmation is intended*; as, “I can not drink *any* (not *no*) more;” or, “I can drink *no* more.”

RULE 3.—*Adverbs are for the most part placed before adjectives, after a verb in the simple form, and after the first auxiliary in the compound form*; as, “He is *very* attentive, behaves *well*, and is *much* esteemed.”

EXPLANATION.—This is to be considered only as a general Rule, to which there are many exceptions. Indeed no rule for the position of the adverb can be given, which is not liable to exceptions. The best direction for the use of this Rule, is to place the adverb where the sense requires, having due regard to the harmony of the sentence. This Rule applies to adjuncts, or adverbial phrases, as well as to adverbs.

OBS. 1.—*Where* should not be used for *in which*, except when the

reference is to place ; as, "The situation in which (not *where*) I left him ;" because "situation" does not here refer to place.

OBS. 2.—*So* is often used elliptically for an adjective, a noun, or a whole sentence ; as, "They are *rich* ; we are not *so*."—" *He is a good scholar*, and I told you *so*."

OBS. 3.—*Only, solely, chiefly, merely, too, also*, and perhaps a few others, are sometimes joined to substantives ; as, "Not *only* the men, but the women *also* were present."

OBS. 4.—A negative is often made by the syllables *dis, in, im, un*, &c., prefixed to a word. When this is the case, another negative is sometimes used, to express a diminished kind of affirmation ; as, "He was not *unkind*." The negative terms are such as *no, not, neither, nor, never, &c.*

For a fuller account of the construction and use of adverbs, see An. & Pr. Gr. 923-943.

EXERCISES.

Adverbs being undeclinable, mistakes are liable to be made chiefly in their position ; or in using as adverbs, words that are not so ; or in using adverbs where other words are required. Correct the errors in the following sentences, as the Rules require :—

(RULE 1).—1. Point out the modifying words in the following sentences. If not adverbs, make them so, and give the Rule.

Come quick. James does that very good. That was done excellent. Time moves rapid. Apparent slow people accomplish much if sufficient steady. You can read excellent well. It is real cold."

2. In the following point out the adverb improperly used. Show why it is so ; change it for the proper term, and give the Rule.

Thine often infirmities. Come the soonest day possible. The soonest time will be late enough. The then ministry opposed the measure. The condition where I found him was truly bad. He was here last year, since when I have not seen him.

3. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain an adverb (see Lesson 31), modifying a verb or adjective, and see that it is placed as directed in Rule 3d and Explanation.

(RULE 2).—1. Point out the two negatives in the following sentences. Show why they are wrong; correct them, and give the Rule.

I can not eat no more. He is not able to walk no further. We can not do that in no way. He will never be no taller. Never do nothing of the kind. Time and tide will not wait for no man. No man never did that. You must not drink no more.

2. Make short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following words: *worthy, just, discreet, kind, obliging, agreeable, happy, firm*, &c. Then prefix to these words the appropriate negative prefix mentioned above. Then insert a negative word in each sentence, and mark the difference of meaning with each change; thus, "He is a worthy man," "He is an unworthy man," "He is not an unworthy man."

(RULE 3).—1. In the following sentences, place the adverb as the Rule directs, provided the sense will thereby be clearly expressed.

A man industrious eminently. He is agreeable always. He sweetly sings, charmingly converses, and prudently conducts himself on all occasions. He unaffectedly spoke. He manfully has contended for the prize, and certainly will obtain it. Time will wait never. He could have not done it. He will be always trusty. That disaster might have easily been prevented. That piece was executed beautifully.

2. The following sentences have the adverb placed according to the Rule, but the sense and harmony of the sentence evidently require it to be in a different position.

Men contend frequently for trifles. I only saw three persons. Of the books I sent him, he only read one. James can very well read. You should slowly write. He might plainly have told him. He not only saw her pleased, but greatly pleased.

3. Write a number of short sentences, each of which shall contain one or more adverbs correctly placed. [See List, Lesson 31].

4. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain one of the following adverbs, viz., *only, merely, solely, chiefly, first, at least*, and tell the word which they modify. Place the adverbs in as many different positions, in each sentence as you can, so as to make sense, and mark the change of meaning.

Lesson 70.—Conjunctions.

RULE XIX.—*Conjunctions connect WORDS, PHRASES, or SENTENCES; as, “He and I must go; but you may stay.”*

SPECIAL RULES.

RULE 1.—*Conjunctions connect the same moods and tenses of verbs, and cases of nouns and pronouns; as, Do good, and seek peace.”—“Honor thy father and mother.”*

EXPLANATION.—The reason of this Rule is, that words thus connected are for the most part in the same construction: that is, nouns connected must be in the same case, because they are nominatives to the same verb, or governed by the same noun, verb, or preposition; and verbs thus connected have usually the same nominative. In respect of case, errors occur chiefly in the use of pronouns.

OBS. 1. When conjunctions connect different moods and tenses, or when a contrast is stated with *but*, *not*, *though*, &c., the nominative is generally repeated; as, “He may return, but *he* will not remain.”

OBS. 2. The relative after *than*, is usually in the objective case; as, “Alfred, than *whom*,” &c.

OBS. 3. After verbs of *doubting*, *fearing*, *denying*, the conjunction *that* should be used, and not *lest*, *but*, *but that*; as, “They feared *that* (not *lest*) he would die.”

OBS. 4. In the compound tenses, verbs connected in the same tense, have the auxiliary expressed with the first, and understood to the rest; as, “John can read, write, and spell.” When different tenses are connected, the auxiliary must always be expressed; as, “He *has* come, but he *will* not stay.”

RULE 2.—*Certain words in the antecedent member of a sentence, require corresponding connectives in the subsequent one: thus,*

1. In clauses or words simply connected—

Both requires *and*; as, “Both he and I came.”

Either *or*; as, “Either he or I will come.”

Neither *nor*; as, “Neither he nor I came.”

Whether *or*; as, “Whether he or I came.”

Though —— *yet* ; as, "Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him."

Not only —— *but also* ; as, "Not only he, but also his brother goes."

2. In clauses connected so as to imply comparison—

The *comparative degree* requires *than* ; as, "He is *taller* than I am."

Other requires *than* ; as, "It is no *other* than he."

Else —— *than* ; as, "What *else* do you expect *than* this?"

As —— *as* (expressing *equality*) ; as, "He is *as tall as* I am."

As —— *so* (expressing *equality*) ; as, "As thy day is, *so* shall thy strength be."

So —— *as* (with a negative, expressing *inequality*) ; as, "He is not *so learned as* his brother."

So —— *that* (expressing *consequence*) ; as, "He is *so weak, that* he cannot walk."

Such —— *as* (expressing *similarity*) ; as, "He, or *such as* he."

NOTE.—*As* and *so*, in the members of a comparison, are properly adverbs.

EXPLANATION.—This Rule means, that when any of the corresponding terms above, stands in one member of a sentence, the other term should stand in the other member. After "though," "yet" is sometimes understood.

RULE 3.—*When a subsequent clause, or part of a sentence, is common to two different but connected antecedent clauses, it must be equally applicable to both* ; as, "That work always has been, and always will be, *admired*."

EXPLANATION.—In order to see whether sentences are correct according to this Rule, join the member of the sentence common to the two clauses, to each of them separately, so as to make two sentences. If both of the sentences are grammatically correct, and express the sense intended, the sentence is right—if not, it is wrong, and must be corrected. Thus, for example, "He has not, and he can not, be censured," is wrong, because if you add the member "be censured," to the first clause, it will make "He has not be censured," which is incorrect, according to Sub-Rule 4 under Rule XVI. This must be corrected by inserting "been" after "has not," so as to read, "He has not been, and he cannot be, censured." The different clauses should be correctly marked by punctuation.

This Rule is often violated in sentences in which there are two comparisons of a different nature and government. Thus, "He was more beloved, but not so much admired as Cinthio." Here, "as

Cinthio," is applicable to the clause "*so much admired*," but can not be connected with "*more beloved*." In such sentences as this, the proper way is, to complete the construction of the first member, and leave that of the second understood; as, "He was more beloved than *Cinthio*, but not so much admired" (*as Cinthio*).

EXERCISES.

(RULE 1).—1. In the following, point out the connected verbs. If they have the same nominative, put them in the same mood and tense. If they must be in different moods or tenses, repeat the nominative; and if that is a noun, repeat it by its pronoun. Point out the connected nouns or pronouns, and put them in the same case.

He reads and wrote well. If he say it, and does it, I am content. If he be at home, and is well, give him the letter. My father has read the book, and will return it to-morrow. James and me ran all the way. That is a small matter between you and I. Him and I are great friends, and so are Mary and me. Nobody knows that better than her and me.

2. Write short sentences, in which two or more verbs are connected in the same mood and tense, and notice particularly Obs. 4. Put the verbs in the *present*—in the *past*—and in the *present-perfect*, &c. Express the same ideas, with the verbs in the passive voice.

3. Write sentences containing two or more verbs in different moods and tenses, paying attention to Obs. 1; write others, containing two or more nouns or pronouns connected in the same case.

(RULE 2).—1. Point out the corresponding terms in the following sentences, make the second correspondent to the first, or the first to the second, as the sense requires. Supply the correspondent term where improperly omitted.

He will not do it himself, nor let another do it for him. Though he slay me, so will I trust in him. That is so far as I am able to go. This book is equally good as that one. Nothing is so bad as it can not be worse. He was not only diligent, but successful in his studies. It is neither cold or hot.

2. Write correct sentences, each of which shall contain one pair of the corresponding terms above, and state what they express.

3. In the following sentences, point out the comparative degree, or other correspondent terms, and make the one correspond to the other, according to the Rule.

James writes better as I do. There were more besides him engaged in that business. No more but two can play at this game. The days are longer in summer besides they are in winter. Has James no other book but this? This is such conduct that I did not expect. It can be no other but he. They had no other book except this one. I would rather read as write. He had no sooner done the mischief but he repented.

2. Write short sentences, each of which shall contain a word in the comparative degree, or the word *other* or *such* followed by the proper correspondent term.

(RULE 3).—Make trial of the following sentences, as directed in the explanation. If either of the clauses, when joined with the member of the sentence common to both, makes a grammatical error, point it out and correct it.

He always has, and he always will, be punctual. They might, and probably were, good. James is taller, but not so strong as his brother. His book is not so good, though larger than I expected. This house is larger, but not so convenient as that one. I ever have, and I ever will say so. “He depends and confides in me,” is as correct as, “He confides and depends upon me.” I am older, but not so feeble as Thomas. Warm weather is pleasant, but not so bracing as cold. Iron is more useful, but not so valuable as gold or silver.

Lesson 71.—*Interjections.*

RULE XX.—*Interjections have no grammatical connection with the other words in a sentence.*

After interjections, pronouns of the first person are commonly in the objective case; those of the second, in the nominative; as, “Ah me”—“O thou!” In neither, however, does the case depend on the interjection. In the objective, there is an ellipsis of the governing word; as, “Ah (pity) me!” In the nominative, they are in the nominative independent, denoting the person addressed.

Lesson 72.—General Rule.

In every sentence, the words employed, and the order in which they are arranged, should be such as clearly and properly to express the idea intended; and, at the same time, all the parts of the sentence should correspond, and a regular and dependent construction be observed throughout.

See Analytical and Practical Grammar, 973 to 976.

EXPLANATION.—This may be regarded as a general rule, applicable to every case, and therefore comprehending all the preceding. Though these embrace almost every thing belonging to the proper construction of sentences, yet there will sometimes occur, instances of impropriety in the use, and arrangement, and connection of words, for the avoiding or correcting of which, no very specific rules can be given.

Among the evils to be guarded against under this Rule, are the following,—

1. The use of words which do not correctly or properly convey the idea intended, or which convey another with equal propriety.
2. The arrangement of words or clauses in such a way that their relation to other words and clauses is doubtful, or difficult to be perceived.
3. The separating of adjuncts from their principals, and placing them so that they may be joined to words to which they do not belong.
4. The separating of relative clauses improperly from their antecedents.
5. Using injudiciously, or too frequently, the third personal or possessive pronoun, especially in indirect discourse.

EXERCISES.

EXPLANATION.—The following sentences are not grammatically incorrect, but from some of the causes mentioned above, are obscure, inelegant, ambiguous, or unintelligible. Point out the impropriety, correct it, and give a reason for the correction.

- (1) The Greeks, fearing to be surrounded on all sides, wheeled about, and halted with the river on their back.

(2) Parmenio had served, with great fidelity, Philip, the father of Alexander, as well as himself, for whom he first opened the way into Asia. (3) Lost, a new umbrella belonging to a gentleman with a curiously carved ivory head. (4) Claudius was canonized among the gods, who scarcely deserved the name of man. (5) A farmer went to a lawyer and told him that his bull had gored his ox.

Lesson 73.—*Ellipsis.*

RULE 1.—*An Ellipsis, or omission of words, is admissible, when they can be supplied by the mind with such certainty and readiness as not to obscure the sense.* Thus,

Instead of saying, “He was a learned man, and he was a wise man, and he was a good man;” we say, “He was a learned, wise, and good man.”

EXPLANATION.—There is a constant tendency among men, to express their ideas in the fewest words possible. Whenever, therefore, a word can be spared from a sentence without obscuring its meaning, that word is often left out. This is called *ellipsis*. Thus, instead of the full form of the sentence, as follows, “I rise at six hours of the clock in the morning, I breakfast at seven hours of the clock in the morning, I go to school at nine hours of the clock, and study till twelve hours of the clock,” we can say, (and be equally well understood), “I rise at six, breakfast at seven, go to school at nine, and study till twelve.” This is the origin of abbreviated sentences; and in order to parse such, or to understand their grammatical construction, the words left out must be supplied.

EXERCISES.

1. In the following sentences, leave out such words as may be omitted without obscuring the sense.

He had an affectionate father and an affectionate mother. You may read, or you may write, as you please. Will you study, or will you not study? I have been at London, and I have seen the queen. A house and a garden. He would neither go, nor would he send.

2. In the following sentences, supply the words left out, so as to show their full construction.

It is six o'clock ; we may study till seven. We have done it, but you have not. John will read, and Thomas write letters. This apple is larger than that, but not so sweet. Give this apple to James, that to Robert, and the other to Mary. I have heard and read much about Washington and the Revolution. "Sun, stand thou still upon Gibeon ; and thou, Moon, in the valley of Ajalon."

Lesson 74.—*Ellipsis not Allowable.*

RULE 2.—*An ellipsis is not allowable, when it would obscure the sentence, weaken its force, or be attended with an impropriety ; for example,—*

"We speak *that* we do know, and testify *that* we have seen," should be, "We know *that which* we do know, and testify *that which* we have seen."

EXPLANATION.—The sense will always be obscured, when on account of improper ellipsis, the construction of the sentence is rendered doubtful, or is not clearly and readily perceived. When a sentence or clause is emphatic, ellipsis is less allowable. The antecedent to the relative, except in poetry, is seldom omitted; and the relative itself, if in the nominative case, never. The article should be repeated when a different form of it is required; as, "A horse and *an* ass."

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences, point out the improper ellipsis. Show why it is improper, and correct it.

Cicero made orations, both on public and private occasions. He is the most diligent scholar I ever knew. Thou hast that is thine. Thine the kingdom, the power, and the glory. Depart in peace, be ye warmed, clothed, and filled. I gladly shunned who gladly fled from me. That is the best can be said of him. He has a house and orchard. We must all go the way we shall not return.

Lesson 75.—Model of Syntactical Parsing.

In syntactical parsing, the pupil is required, besides parsing the word etymologically, [See Lesson 36], to state its relation to other words in the sentence, and the rules by which these relations are governed. To illustrate this more clearly, the same sentence parsed etymologically, Lesson 37, is here passed syntactically.

“Give instruction to a wise man, and he will be yet wiser.”

“Give,” is a verb, transitive, irregular; give, gave, given; in the imperative, active, second person, singular, and agrees with its nominative *thou*, understood. Rule VIII. “A verb agrees,” &c.

“Instruction,” is a noun, neuter, in the objective singular, governed by *give*. Rule X. “A transitive verb,” &c.

“To,” is a preposition, and expresses the relation between *give* and *man*, as its remote object.

“A,” is an article, indefinite, belongs to *man*, and shows it to be used indefinitely. Rule III. “The article *a* or *an* is put,” &c.

“Wise,” is an adjective, compared, *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*; and expresses a quality of *man*. Rule II. “An adjective or participle,” &c.

“Man,” is a noun, masculine, in the objective singular, governed by *to*. Rule XI. “A preposition governs,” &c.

“And,” is a conjunction, copulative, and connects the two clauses. Rule XIX. “Conjunctions connect,” &c.

“He,” is a third personal pronoun, masculine, in the nominative, singular; stands instead of *man*, with which it agrees. Rule IV. “Pronouns agree,” &c., and is the subject or nominative of *will be*. Rule VI. “The subject of a finite verb,” &c.

“Will be,” is a verb, intransitive, irregular; am, was, been; in the future, indicative; third person, singular; and affirms of its subject *he*, with which it agrees. Rule VIII. “A verb agrees,” &c.

“Yet,” is an adverb, modifying *wiser*. Rule XVIII. “Adverbs modify,” &c.

“Wiser,” is an adjective, comparative degree; *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*; and belongs to *man*, or is predicated of *he*. Rule II. “An adjective or participle,” &c.

Questions similar to those suggested at the close of LESSON 37, may be proper here also.

For Exercises in Syntactical Parsing, the pupil may now return to LESSON 38, or take any plain passage in the reading lessons of the Spelling Book; or the ordinary reading books used in the school, may be used for this purpose, as the teacher may direct.

Lesson 76.—*Promiscuous Exercises on the Rules of Syntax.*

In order to correct the following Exercises, examine each sentence carefully, and see wherein it is wrong. See, first, whether words that should agree, do so—the verb with its nominative—the numeral adjective with its noun—the pronoun personal and relative, with its substantive; secondly, whether nouns and pronouns are in the case which the word governing them requires; and lastly, whether the words are arranged in the order which the Rules require. Having found the error, correct it, and give the Rule for the correction. These Exercises, when corrected, or in the time of correcting, may be used as Exercises in Syntactical parsing.

1. John writes beautiful. I shall never do so no more. The train of our ideas are often interrupted. Was you present at last meeting? He need not be in so much haste. He dare not act otherwise than he does. Him who they seek is in the house. George or I is the person. They or he is much to be blamed. The troop consist of fifty men. Those set of books was a valuable present. That pillar is sixty foot high. His conduct evinced the most extreme vanity. The trees are remarkable tall.

2. He acted bolder than was expected. This is he who I gave the book to. Eliza always appears amiably. Who do you lodge with now? He was born at London, but he died in Bath. If he be sincere, I am satisfied. Her father and her were at church. The master requested him and I to read more distinctly. It is no more but his due. Flatterers flatter as long, and no longer than they have expectations of gain. John told the same story as you told. This is the largest tree which I have ever seen.

3. Let he and I read the next chapter. She is free of pain. Those sort of dealings are unjust. David the son of Jesse, was the youngest of his brothers. You was very

kind to him, he said. Well, says I, what does thou think of him now? James is one of those boys that was kept in at school, for bad behavior. Thou, James, will deny the deed. Neither good nor evil come of themselves. We need not to be afraid. It is all fell down.

4. He expected to have gained more by the bargain. You should drink plenty of goat milk. It was him who spoke first. Do you like ass milk? Is it me that you mean? Who did you buy your grammar from? If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray. Neither man nor woman were present. I am more taller than you. She is the same lady who sang so sweetly. After the most straitest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee. Is not thy wickedness great? and thine iniquities infinite? There is six that studies grammar.

Lesson 77.—Punctuation.

PUNCTUATION is the art of dividing a written composition into sentences, or parts of sentences, by points or stops, in order to convey to the reader the exact sense, and assist him in the proper delivery. The principal stops are the following:—

The comma (,) the semicolon (;) the colon (:) the period or full stop (.) the note of interrogation (?) the note of exclamation (!) the parenthesis () and the dash (—)

The comma represents the shortest pause; the semicolon, a pause double that of the comma; the colon, a pause double that of the semicolon: and the period, a pause double that of the colon.

The duration of the pauses must be left to the taste of the reader or speaker.

The COMMA usually separates those parts of a sentence which though very closely connected in sense and construction, require a pause between them.

The SEMICOLON is used to separate the parts of a sentence, which are less closely connected than those which are separated by a comma.

The COLON is used to divide a sentence into two or more parts, less connected than those which are separated by a semicolon; but not so independent as to require a period.

The PERIOD is used when a sentence is complete, with respect to the construction and the sense intended; as, "God made all things."

"By disappointments and trials, the violence of our passions is tamed." "In the varieties of life, we are inured to habits of both the active and the passive virtues."

The period must be used after all abbreviations; as, "A. D." "M. A." "Fol."

For rules for punctuation, see An. & Pr. Gram., 990, &c.

Lesson 78.—*Capitals.*

In composition, the following words begin with capital letters:

1. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or any other piece of writing.
2. The first word after a period; also after a note of intercession, or exclamation, when the sentence before, and the one after it, are independent of each other.
3. Proper names, that is, names of persons, places, ships, &c.
4. The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, are written in capitals.
5. The first word of every line in poetry.
6. The appellations of the Deity; as, God, Most High, the Almighty, the Supreme Being, &c.
7. Adjectives derived from the proper names of places; as Grecian, Roman, English, &c.
8. The first word of a quotation, introduced after a colon; as, Always remember this ancient maxim: "Know thyself."
9. Common nouns, when personified: as, "Come, gentle Spring."
10. Every substantive and principal word in the titles of books; as, Euclid's Elements of Geometry; "Goldsmith's Deser'ted Village."

NOTE. Other words besides the preceding, may begin with capitals, when they are remarkably emphatic, or the principal subject of the composition.

PART FOURTH.—PROSODY.

Lesson 79.—*Prosody*.

PROSODY consists of two parts; *Elocution* and *Versification*.

I. ELOCUTION.

ELOCUTION is correct pronunciation, or the proper management of the voice in reading or speaking, and comprises *Accent*, *Quantity*, *Emphasis*, *Pause* and *Tone*.

II. VERSIFICATION.

VERSIFICATION is the arrangement of a certain number of long and short syllables according to certain rules. Composition so arranged is called *Verse* or *Poetry*.

VERSE is of two kinds; *Rhyme* and *Blank verse*. Rhyme is a similarity of sound in the last syllables of two or more lines arranged in a certain order. Poetry consisting of such lines, is sometimes called Rhyme. Blank-VERSE is poetry without rhyme.

Every verse or line of poetry consists of a certain number of parts called *Feet*. The arrangement of these feet in a line according to the accent, is called *Metre*; and the dividing of a line into its component feet is called *Scanning*.

All feet used in poetry, are reducible to eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three syllables; the long syllable being marked by a straight line (—) and the short, by a curve, (—) as follows:

DISSYLLABLE.

- A Trochee — —
- An Iambus — —
- A Spondee — —
- A Pyrrhic — —

TRISSYLLABLE,

- A Dactyl — — —
- An Amphibrach — — — —
- An Anapæst — — —
- A Tribrach — — — —

In English, accented syllables are long, unaccented are short.

The Metres in most common use, are the *Iambic*, *Trochaic* and *Anapaestic*.

IAMBIC METRE is adapted to grave and serious subjects; it has the second, fourth, and other even syllables, accented or long; and the first, third, and other uneven syllables, unaccented, or short. Of this verse there are various kinds, some having two feet, some three, some four, some five. This last is called *heroic measure*, and is the same that is used by Milton, Young, Thomson, Pollok, &c.

When the last line of a stanza is extended to six feet, it is called *Alexandrine*.

TROCHAIC METRE is quick and lively, and adapted to gay and cheerful composition. It comprises verses of one and a half, two, three, four, five, and sometimes six feet; sometimes followed by an additional syllable.

ANAPÄSTIC METRE consists of lines of two, three, four Metres or Anapæsts, with sometimes an additional syllable.

Lesson 80.—*Composition.*

COMPOSITION is the putting of words together in sentences, for the purpose of expressing our ideas in writing, in the best manner, according to the Rules of Grammar, and the best usages of the language.

Almost all the Exercises in the preceding Grammar, and especially those under the Rules of Syntax, have been framed with a view to exercise the pupil in the elementary parts of composition, by leading him to vary his ideas, and to express the same idea in different forms; to detect and correct errors which often occur in the construction of sentences; and so to put him on his guard against similar errors; and also to form correct sentences for himself, according to the particular directions laid down under the various Rules. In committing his own ideas to writing, in the form of compositions, then, all he has to do, is to endeavor to select the proper words, and to combine these so as to express his meaning correctly, according to the Rules with which he is now supposed to be familiar. The few following hints may be useful.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS TO YOUNG COMPOSERS.

1. Spell every word correctly. Pay proper attention to the use of capitals; always using them where they should be, and never where they should not be. [See Lesson 78].
2. Carefully avoid all vulgar expressions and cant phrases, and never use words which you do not understand, or which do not correctly express your meaning.
3. At the end of the line, never divide a word of one syllable, nor

any word in the middle of a syllable. If there should not be room at the end of the line for the whole syllable, do not begin it at all, but carry it to the next line.

4. When you have written what you intended, look over it carefully; see if you can improve it by a better choice of words, or by a better arrangement of them, so as to express your meaning more clearly; and mark the changes proposed.

5. Copy the whole over in as neat, distinct, and plain a manner as you can, guarding against blots and erasures, which disfigure any writing, dotting your 'i's, crossing your 't's, and pointing the whole in the best manner you can, so that any person, as well as yourself, may easily read and understand it.

6. Try to make every new composition better than the one before it. Never write carelessly, and though it may be a little difficult at first, a little practice will soon make it easy.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

The more simple exercises in composition are, for young beginners, so much the better. They should not be required to write about any thing with which they are not perfectly familiar.

1. The following is a very simple and easy exercise. A class of pupils may be directed to look at a certain picture in the Spelling Book or Geography, or any other book at hand; and the teacher may excite their attention by asking some questions, or telling them something respecting it, and then direct each one, either in his seat or at home, to write a description of the picture, together with any ideas that occur to him on the subject. This method will furnish an endless variety of easy and useful exercises.

2. From pictures, the attention may be turned to real objects. The class may now be directed to any object or objects within their view, which they may be required to describe and give their ideas about, as before; for example, the school-house and its furniture—the business of the day, in the form of a journal—the principal objects in view to the south of the school-house—to the north—to the east—to the west. Each may be directed to describe his own house, and the leading objects in view from it in different directions, or any object which he may choose to select.

3. Another class of easy and interesting subjects may be found in describing familiar objects in natural history—the various seasons of the year, with their employments and amusements—the various operations of the farmer, and different mechanic arts—narratives of any accidents, or striking events that may have occurred.

4. Short familiar epistolary correspondence, real or imaginary. One pupil may be directed to write to another concerning any thing he pleases. A post-office might be set up in the school, with its let-

ter-box, to be opened at stated seasons, and its contents read for the amusement and instruction of the school. This exercise, because voluntary, would be entered into with spirit, and prove of great benefit.

5. Themes on familiar subjects may next be assigned, such as the following:

Point out the evils of the following vices and improprieties, and make such remarks respecting them as you think proper; viz., Lying, Stealing, Swearing, Disobedience to Parents, Sabbath-breaking, Discontentment, Intemperance, Ill nature, Violent passions, Penuriousness, Idleness, Cruelty to animals, Bad company, &c.

Point out the benefits arising from Truth, Honesty, Sobriety, Love to God, Love to men, Good nature, Industry, Contentment, Kindness to the poor, Keeping good company, Proper amusements, &c., and make such remarks as you think proper respecting them.

In all cases with beginners, it is better to require them to give their own thoughts on familiar subjects with which they are acquainted, than to give them subjects of an abstract nature, or of which they can not be supposed to have much knowledge. In the former case, they will be likely to give their own thoughts in their own way; in the latter, they will have to resort to books, and instead of giving their own ideas, will be apt to copy the writings of others, without perhaps, well understanding them.

6. When the compositions are prepared, the errors in Grammar should be pointed out and explained; mistakes in orthography, capitals, punctuation, &c., corrected, or pointed out to be corrected, and then the whole copied, in a correct and plain manner, into a book kept for that purpose.

Compositions of a higher order than those which have been suggested, would be above the years and acquirements of those for whom this little work is intended, and would therefore be improper. Having gone through these Lessons, pupils, though young, will be well prepared for taking up, with ease and advantage, the "Analytical and Practical Grammar of the English Language," and for going through a more thorough and critical course.

[THE END.]

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